The Relationship between Employer of Choice Status and Employer Branding

Article - December 2008

2 authors, including:

Snyman Ohlhoff
Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:

1st TESA International Conference View project

KPMG International Survey of Corporate Responsibility Reporting 2008 View project
# JOURNAL OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT DYNAMICS (JBMD)

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FOREWORD
In higher education, students and lecturers alike often prepare well-meaning plans for the year that lies ahead. This may include completing that outstanding Master's or doctoral degree, preparing a paper for presentation at an academic conference, writing a book or chapter in a book, authoring or co-authoring a publishable article to submit to an accredited journal, registering a research project or continuing with researching their respective study fields for new developments, new initiatives and new cutting-edge theories that will pave the way for lecturers and students to gain the knowledge and understanding needed to survive in an ever-changing and increasingly resources-challenged world.

Educators may also plan to revisit their study guides and notes with ideas of improving on their performance in class, presenting paying students with more professional and up-to-date study material, and to attend to a number of in-service training courses to bring about a higher level of personal growth and development.

If one considers the background of the real needs of our growing society, and the lack of skills and qualified individuals, then it is imperative that a positive attitude towards research has to be a first requirement for all educators. Such a mindset will result in action that will follow purpose with results that may boggle the mind.

The National Research Foundation often laments the dearth of researchers in South Africa. All educators clearly have a responsibility to the country at large – and the people in it and the institutions they work for – to contribute to the research status of higher-education institutions to be at the forefront of research achievements in South Africa.

Considering South Africa’s national and international research status, it is imperative that local research outputs are increased dramatically by all educators, which means that each and every higher-education staff member in this country should strive to produce at least one publishable and accreditable research article per year and, if possible, more.

The research cause will only be advanced if leadership in higher education encourages and supports their academic and other staff members, including heads of departments, to initiate and organise their staff members into article-writing teams in order to give effect to a broad-based thrust to increase research outputs, initially by joint article-writing efforts, and later individually, which means that research per se will have to be prioritised as an essential function of all academics and educators, and all those involved in higher education.

The JBMD is a vehicle for the advancement of research from a multidisciplinary perspective.

Academics and other contributors who submit articles for publication in the JBMD will access infinite opportunities for personal growth and development that will also benefit our local higher-education research profiles in South Africa, as well as our international research standings compared to the rest of the world.

As the Editor-in-Chief of the JBMD and this December 2008 edition being the last of the year, I wish all academics and researchers a successful academic and research year in 2009. Your research efforts will not be vain.

Professor MS Bayat, Editor-in-Chief of JBMD and Dean of the Faculty of Business, Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

JOURNAL POLICIES
The Journal of Business and Management Dynamics (JBMD) is a peer-reviewed journal of the Faculty of Business at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology in Cape Town, South Africa. This journal is aimed at providing practical guidance and empirical evidence to researchers and practitioners specialising in the business management and humanities fields. The journal provides a communication forum to advance entrepreneurship, innovation, small business management and various disciplines in the humanities, as well as the application of the disciplines in practice. Its
aim is the improvement and further development of these fields and it is designed to appeal to both practitioners and academics. A double-blind review process is followed, supported by a national and international Editorial Review Board.

Full academic accreditation will be applied for when the requirements have been met.

The mission of the JBMD is to publish empirical and theoretical contributions in the form of case studies and conceptual articles.

It is envisaged that the JBMD will serve as a platform for presenting information central to the concerns of practitioners and academics. In this manner, research will grow and simultaneously shape theories for future application.

The journal is published biannually in June and December by the Faculty of Business of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

The views expressed in this journal are those of the respective authors.

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Editorial policy

The primary purpose of the journal is to publish research articles in the fields of entrepreneurship, innovation, business management, finance and the humanities. Practical papers, empirical papers, new approaches and techniques, case studies and conceptual papers will be considered for publication.

The journal serves as a communication forum for advancing entrepreneurship and business management theory and practice in Southern Africa and elsewhere. Its aim is the improvement and further development of these fields, and it is intended for both practitioners and academics.

Review process and proofing

The decision of the editorial staff to publish a manuscript is based on the judgement of the reviewers, who are all knowledgeable in their respective fields. Authors will be informed of the decision, including any relevant comments, after the paper had been reviewed. Neither authors nor reviewers are identified in the review process.

What to submit

Academic manuscripts of either a research, conceptual or empirical nature which contribute to the aims of the journal will be considered. Book reviews, as well as an opinion/viewpoint column will be published.

Submission requirements

When submitting, authors must agree that:

- They have not submitted and will not submit their manuscript to another entity while the manuscript is under review at JMBD.
- They will only submit manuscripts and empirical reports that have not been published previously.
- Their manuscripts are prepared according to the prescribed style of MBD. Manuscripts that have not been appropriately prepared will be returned to the authors prior to peer-reviewing.

Format

Font and font size: Arial 12 point.

Abstract: The abstract should consist of 100 words or less.

Keywords: Authors should identify up to five keywords on the title page that characterise the principal themes covered by the paper.

Language: Papers should be written in English.

Title page: This page should contain the title of the manuscript and the name, affiliation, full address and contact information of every author. The name of the author to whom correspondence should be sent should be marked with an asterisk (*).

Body: The manuscript must be typed on one side of the page only in 1.5 spacing. Appropriate headings and subheadings should be used to segment the manuscript to enhance readability. The length of the manuscript should not exceed 10 000 words of typed text.

Headings: Headings and subheadings should not be numbered. All headings must be formatted in Arial 12 bold upper case, and subheadings in Arial 12 bold lower sentence case (i.e. using significant initial capitals and the rest lower case). Papers, especially research papers should, where applicable include: abstract, introduction, identification of problem, aim of the study, method, sample, measuring instruments, procedure, results and a discussion. The discussion section should include four subsections: the relationship between the findings and the literature; limitations of the study, Implications for
management; and directions for future research. Finally, a conclusion should round off the article.

Footnotes: Footnotes or endnotes should be avoided where possible and should not be used for reference purposes. They should be used for clarification that is not appropriate in the body of the manuscript. If used, they should be numbered consecutively and placed on a separate page.

Tables: Tables and figures should be applied in the text, as close as possible and figures: to the appropriate discussion. They should be numbered consecutively in Arabic numerals.

Summary: We also need a 1 000–1 500 word summary of your article for publishing in a popular magazine, newspaper or newsletter.

References: The Harvard style of reference is used (see below). All publications cited in the text should be listed alphabetically by the surname of the first author in the bibliography at the end of the paper.

A bibliography (alphabetical, by author’s last name, including initials) should be placed at the end of the manuscript. Authors should ensure that there is a complete reference for every citation in the text and that the cited dates and the spelling of authors’ names in the text and references are in agreement. For a complete guideline for referencing, contact the Editor, Professor IW Ferreira, ferreirai@cput.ac.za.

Citations: The most recent publications on the discussed topic should be cited, particularly those of the last 5–10 years.

Style guide
among (not ‘amongst’)
bed-nights
closed-ended question (not 'close')
cooperate
coordination
data – treated as collective noun, therefore with singular verb
ecotourism (no hyphen)
human resource management (not ‘resources’)
multidisciplinary (no hyphen)
online (no hyphen)
psychosocial (no hyphen)
southern Africa (it’s a region not a country)
UK
US
while (not ‘whilst’)

References
For four or more authors: use first name followed by ‘et al.’ (not italic)
For three authors: use all names at first mention, thereafter use ‘et al.’
In the text, no comma after author’s name, space after colon, e.g. (Ferreira 2008: 123)
In the reference list, no brackets around the year.

Quotation marks
Double (but single used if within double quotation marks)

Quotations
Indented (no quotation marks) if 40 words or more
En dashes
Used for page ranges, etc. (typed by pressing the Ctrl and minus sign key simultaneously)

Numbers
In the text, use words for numbers one to ten, thereafter numerals
Use spaces instead of commas between hundreds, thousands and millions
Use the decimal point rather than the comma

Captions
Table caption above table, source below
Figure caption and source below figure

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CAPE TOWN
8000
RUGBY AND SOCCER SPECTATOR PROPENSITY TO VIOLENCE: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

A Slabbert*

ABSTRACT
Rugby and soccer (or football) are both international sports and economic entities in their own right, as evidenced by the growth in attendance and television viewership at the respective World Cups. The issue of sport as catharsis, or conversely as an aggression-generating event, has always been controversial. In order to assess the orientation of rugby and soccer spectators towards violence, 404 spectators were surveyed. Results indicate significant differences between rugby and soccer spectators, with soccer spectators exhibiting higher levels of aggression towards the referee and opposing players. It emerged that the concept of sport as catharsis is not a reality when the spectators’ side loses a match. A call is made for extensive education of all role-players in soccer if the sport is not to be negatively affected.

INTRODUCTION
Rugby and soccer are both international sports, and economic entities in their own right. The 2007 Rugby World Cup which took place in France has been described as the most successful to date. Attendance and viewership, as well as economic impact on a broad front, established the sport as a significant entity in the sporting world. Total attendance was 2.25 million, while television viewership attracted 119 broadcasters with an estimated audience of 4.2 billion people. In comparison, the attendance at the 2003 Australian event was 1.9 million, while television viewership was 3.4 billion. These figures should be juxtaposed against figures for the 1987 event in New Zealand, when the Rugby World Cup commenced – attendance was 600 000, and television audience was estimated at 230 million (RWC 2007 confirmed as record-breaker).

Soccer, in comparison, has a significantly longer history in World Cup tournaments than rugby. The first tournament of the 18 to date was held in 1930 in Uruguay. Television coverage of the 2006 FIFA World Cup attracted a cumulative audience of 26.29 billion, while 3.4 million spectators passed through the turnstiles (2006 FIFA World Cup broadcast wider, longer and farther than ever before). Clearly, in view of the statistics above, a significant proportion of the global population display a strong interest in the two sports. It has always been popularly maintained that participating in and watching sport are psychologically healthy, and that these activities create equilibrium in the lives of people. Especially in the opening years of the 21st century – a very stressful epoch in the history of humanity – any diversion which is not stress generating in nature should be regarded in a positive light.

Sport is regarded as cathartic in nature. This sentiment was evaluated by Richard Sipes, an American anthropologist in 1973 (as quoted in Atyeo 1978). In this seminal work, the learned-aggression theory was tested against the drive-discharge theory, and it was conclusively proved that learned aggression is a phenomenon of warlike societies (which predominantly play combative sports). The drive-discharge theory thus was discredited, and Sipes’ perceptual model therefore stipulated that aggressive behaviour within societies could be significantly reduced by the elimination or downscaling of combative or conflict-related sports (Atyeo 1978: 373).

Rugby and soccer both fall into the above category. Incidents of violent and aggressive behaviour, both on and off the field of play, are simply too numerous to mention. The whole topic is well documented and soundly researched.

The particular focus of this article revolves around the propensity of spectators for violence. Again, this sociological phenomenon has earned in-depth investigation over the years. However,
with both the rugby and soccer World Cups still close in proximity on a time scale, and as South Africa is the host country of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, it is of interest to investigate the perceptions/attitudes of spectators, and to evaluate possible differentials between rugby and soccer spectators.

The primary focus was on the condoning of violence and aggression by players, with the receptors of the aggression being the referee (the authority figure) and opposing players. Violence and aggression can be manifested in various and diverse ways, and could conceivably be classified on a continuum ranging from mild verbal abuse or insults to physical assault in extremis. In this context, the work of Wann et al. (2001) bears relevance: the authors quote the work of Lewis (1980), who developed a typology for categorising violent spectator behaviour: verbal assault, disrupting play, throwing missiles, fighting and vandalism.

In the context of verbal abuse, Wann et al. (2001: 97–98) refer to an American study which investigated the attitudes of 500 spectators at a soccer match: 75% had shouted insults, 41% said that fans should be allowed to say what they want, while 18% considered verbal abuse to be funny in nature. This behaviour is not limited to particular countries: in China, soccer spectators at the Workers’ Stadium in Beijing are so riotous that their behaviour has been labelled the “Beijing Curse”. Spectator violence can thus be regarded as an “active” behaviour, where the spectator personally participates in terms of the Lewis continuum. It could also be less active (and possibly less sinister), in the sense that the spectator becomes and remains a passive observer of aggressive behaviour. It should be noted here that active violent behaviour by spectators is not the focus of this study. Rather, the first category in the Lewis typology is of relevance here, i.e. verbal abuse, and specifically verbal abuse of the referee by players. The secondary focus was whether spectators would condone/approve violent behaviour by players vis-à-vis opposing players.

**METHODOLOGY**

As the study is essentially exploratory in nature, an elementary methodology was constructed by utilising a simple four-item survey. Subjects were approached at a sports stadium in Cape Town, South Africa, which is used by both the rugby and soccer codes. It should be noted that the language in the items had to be amended at times in order to ensure that subjects (chosen at random) comprehended the essence of the question item – this could hypothetically cast doubt on content validity, although it is not likely that the questions were distorted. Four questions were put to the subjects:

1. Is it justifiable for players to verbally abuse the referee?
2. Is it justifiable for players to verbally abuse opposing players?
3. Is it justifiable for players to physically abuse the referee?
4. Is it justifiable for players to physically abuse opposing players?

A four-point closed-ended Likert Scale was utilised for noting responses: never, occasionally, frequently, always.

In order to superficially approximate an understanding of the “sport catharsis” phenomenon, three sets of surveys were conducted, both for rugby and soccer spectators:

- Event one: Before the game.
- Event two: After the game (side won).
- Event three: After the game (side lost).

The number of respondents to event one (before the game) was 193 rugby spectators (101 male and 92 female) and 211 soccer spectators (129 male and 82 female).

The number of respondents to event two (after the game – side won) was 98 (rugby) and 103 (soccer).

The number of respondents to event three (after the game – side lost) was 91 (rugby) and 97 (soccer).
The data was gathered over a period of three months, and included four rugby and six soccer matches.

Variables such as age and socio-economic status were not considered, and due to a technical oversight, gender statistics were not provided for events two and three. The results were analysed by using the student t-test to analyse differences between groups.

RESULTS

The obtained raw data is displayed in table 1:

### Table 1: Raw data: Rugby vs soccer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rugby</th>
<th>Soccer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>Occasionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event one</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = 103</td>
<td>n = 103</td>
<td>n = 103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rugby and soccer spectator propensity to violence

3
Table 2: Rugby vs soccer: Before game

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rugby</th>
<th></th>
<th>Soccer</th>
<th></th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>T-value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td>1.2280</td>
<td>0.6996</td>
<td>3.3318</td>
<td>0.8188</td>
<td>−27.6403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.1295</td>
<td>1.1221</td>
<td>3.0995</td>
<td>1.1018</td>
<td>−8.7614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td>1.1658</td>
<td>0.4716</td>
<td>1.6351</td>
<td>1.0486</td>
<td>−5.7110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.9223</td>
<td>1.0454</td>
<td>2.6919</td>
<td>1.0578</td>
<td>2.1985</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that numerical values were assigned to the Likert responses: never (1), occasionally (2), frequently (3), and always (4). From the above it is apparent that all four tests indicate significant differences in the opinions of rugby and soccer spectators before a game, this being at the 0.05 level of significance.

Soccer spectators are significantly more pro verbal abuse of the referee than rugby spectators are. This is reflected by the means 3.33 and 1.23 respectively.

A similar finding appears regarding the physical abuse of a referee (means respectively 1.64 and 1.17, with a t-value of −5.7). It is noted that the mean in this case indicates a lower level of approval of physical violence, which is not surprising. Soccer spectators approve verbal abuse of players at a significantly higher level than rugby spectators do (means 3.09 and 2.13 respectively), but the finding is reversed for the two codes when physical abuse of players is considered (2.69 and 2.92). This finding correlates with the nature of the two codes, as physical abuse is inherently part of the rugby code.

Table 3: Rugby vs soccer – side won

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rugby</th>
<th></th>
<th>Soccer</th>
<th></th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>T-value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td>1.1429</td>
<td>0.5177</td>
<td>2.7184</td>
<td>1.2321</td>
<td>−11.7128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.8878</td>
<td>0.9832</td>
<td>2.620</td>
<td>0.9489</td>
<td>−6.6751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td>1.1429</td>
<td>0.5744</td>
<td>1.5631</td>
<td>0.7231</td>
<td>−4.5477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.4490</td>
<td>1.0661</td>
<td>2.5631</td>
<td>0.8820</td>
<td>−0.8286</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three of the four tests indicate that there are significant differences in the opinion of rugby and soccer spectators after a game (when their side won the game). A similar pattern to the findings in table 2 emerges, and it is significant to note that, when a simple comparison of the means is done (tables 2 and 3) lower levels of both verbal and physical abuse towards the referee and players are exhibited. This would lend credence to the sport as catharsis theory.
Table 4: Rugby vs soccer: After the game – side lost

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rugby</th>
<th>Soccer</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>2.4176</td>
<td>0.8572</td>
<td>3.4948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.7473</td>
<td>0.9018</td>
<td>3.5670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.3077</td>
<td>0.6445</td>
<td>2.1237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>3.2198</td>
<td>0.9666</td>
<td>2.7113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All four tests show that there are significant differences in the opinions of rugby and soccer spectators after the game (when their side lost). There are significant increases in the levels of acceptance of abuse, directed at both the referee and opposing players. It should be noted here that the acceptance of verbal abuse of the referee by rugby spectators (mean 2.42) is significantly higher than either before the game (mean 1.23) and when their side had won (mean 1.14). This finding illustrates the converse of the drive discharge theory and is indicative of the identification of a scapegoat to blame for the loss, in this case the referee. It is apparent that the findings here relate to higher levels of frustration and aggression in spectators.

The findings above relate to a comparative analysis of rugby and soccer spectators. Care should be taken in drawing broad conclusions based on means, and therefore a finer analysis had to be undertaken in terms of the two sporting codes.

Table 5: Rugby: Before vs after – side won

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Before the game</th>
<th>After the game – side won</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rugby</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.2280</td>
<td>0.6996</td>
<td>1.1429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.1295</td>
<td>1.1221</td>
<td>1.8878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.1658</td>
<td>0.4716</td>
<td>1.1429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.9223</td>
<td>1.0454</td>
<td>2.4490</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The only significant difference in this condition (the opinions of rugby spectators before the game as compared to after the game (side won)) is that there is a significant reduction in the level of condoned physical abuse of players. It can be hypothesised that spectators are more forgiving and magnanimous towards players from the opposing team after their side had won.

Table 6: Rugby: Before vs after – side lost

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Before the game</th>
<th>After the game – side lost</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rugby</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.2280</td>
<td>0.6996</td>
<td>2.4176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.1295</td>
<td>1.1221</td>
<td>2.7473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.1658</td>
<td>0.4716</td>
<td>1.3077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.9223</td>
<td>1.0454</td>
<td>3.2198</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All four tests show significant differences in this scenario. This is in support of the comparison of means which were discussed earlier. It is apparent that losing a game leads to higher levels of aggression in rugby spectators – proving that there cannot be catharsis in a negative/loss scenario. The learned aggression theory therefore finds strong validation in the findings above.

Table 7: Rugby: Side won vs side lost

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>After the game – side won</th>
<th>After the game – side lost</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.1429</td>
<td>0.5177</td>
<td>2.4176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>1.8878</td>
<td>0.9832</td>
<td>2.7473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.1429</td>
<td>0.5744</td>
<td>1.3077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical abuse:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.4400</td>
<td>1.0651</td>
<td>3.2198</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All four tests show significant differences between the two conditions for rugby spectators (side won vs side lost), with the lowest significance at the 0.1 level relating to the perception of justified physical abuse of the referee. Again, the concept of sport as catharsis is disproved.

Table 8: Soccer before vs after – side won

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Before the game</th>
<th>After the game – side won</th>
<th>Results</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
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<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>3.3318</td>
<td>0.8188</td>
<td>2.7184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>3.0995</td>
<td>1.1018</td>
<td>2.8020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.6351</td>
<td>1.0486</td>
<td>1.5631</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical abuse:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.6919</td>
<td>1.0578</td>
<td>2.5631</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

There are significant differences in the opinions of soccer spectators before and after a game when their side won with regard to the issue of verbal abuse. There are no differences regarding physical abuse. In essence the pattern reflects that of rugby spectators, and indicates that winning is indeed cathartic in nature.

Table 9: Soccer before vs after – side lost

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Before the game</th>
<th>After the game – side lost</th>
<th>Results</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
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<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>3.3318</td>
<td>0.8188</td>
<td>3.4948</td>
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<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>3.0995</td>
<td>1.1018</td>
<td>3.5670</td>
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<td>Physical abuse:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.6351</td>
<td>1.0486</td>
<td>2.1237</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical abuse:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.6919</td>
<td>1.0578</td>
<td>2.7113</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

It is noted here that for soccer spectators there are significant increases in the approval of verbal abuse of players and, more disconcertingly, approval of physical abuse of the referee. Again, as in rugby, a “revenge” motive can be hypothesised. It should also be noted that the approval of verbal abuse of the referee is very high in both conditions (means 3.33 and 3.49 respectively).
Table 10: Soccer: Side won vs side lost

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<th>After the game – side won</th>
<th>After the game – side lost</th>
<th>Results</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>2.7184</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.8020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal abuse:</td>
<td>Referee</td>
<td>1.5631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Players</td>
<td>2.5631</td>
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<td>Physical abuse:</td>
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championship. Ford (2005: n.p.) quotes William Gaillard, a spokesperson for UEFA, who stated that UEFA sees no obvious solution to the problem, and that it is extremely difficult to protect the privacy of the referees.

Juxtaposed against this, incidents of player/spectator abuse of referees by rugby players at first-class level are of minor importance. There are only two examples of such incidents in South Africa at first-class level: Percy Montgomery who made physical contact with a referee while playing in Wales, and more recently, the much-publicised incident when Schalk Burger verbally abused a touch judge. This is borne out by a study which was done to determine the sources of stress and burnout among 682 rugby referees in Wales, Scotland and England. Rainey and Hardy (1999: 797) found that three stress factors (performance concerns, time pressure and interpersonal conflict) were identified as stressors, but fear of physical harm was not related to referee stress. What is of concern in this dimension is the increased prevalence of spectator violence at rugby matches in certain areas of the Western Cape – a phenomenon which needs to be addressed and controlled.

Clearly, a process of education of all those involved in the sport has become an urgent necessity. Control over spectators is of dire importance if the sport is not to be tarnished by increasing disregard of and contempt for referees. The sport itself is under threat, and pertinently so if the learned-aggression reality (especially when losing a match) is reviewed. Morality in sport should not be discarded as a side issue. As Woods (2007: 170) states:

Performance sport in which competition and winning are paramount have dramatically influenced sporting behaviour in recent years. The value of winning may become such a seductive goal that all thoughts of moral behaviour are temporarily put aside.

REFERENCES

Rugby and soccer spectator propensity to violence


* Professor A Slabbert is the Head of Department of Research in the Faculty of Business at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.
LEGISLATING “GOVERNMENT INTERFERENCE” IN SPORT: OVERVIEW OF THE NATIONAL SPORT AND RECREATION AMENDMENT ACT 18 OF 2007

LD Naidoo*

ABSTRACT
Sport is seen as a national asset and as such belongs to the people of South Africa. Sport has been successfully used as a vehicle to bring the different race groups together into a united South Africa. The first democratic elections were in 1994, but the process of the unification of the different sporting codes in South Africa began as early as 1991 with some codes actually achieving unification in that year. Sport is regarded as a national treasure and for many citizens it has become a way of life.

The gains made through sport in bringing the people of the country together from a divided past cannot be forgotten, and it is for this reason that governance of sport in our country must be protected.

This article examines the background and current understanding of the topic.

INTRODUCTION
In 2007, the National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act 18 of 2007 was released to the public without much fanfare or outcry. The intention of the National Sport and Recreation Amendment Bill, which preceded the Act, was to create mechanisms that would allow the Minister to intervene in disputes that at the time seemed to have plagued national sports federations with increasing speed. The Act is aimed at providing, among other things, the Minister of Sport with the power to “intervene” in sport administration in South Africa in order to ensure that sports federations entrusted with administering sport in this country do so in a reasonable, responsible and accountable manner.

Barely a year down the line and all the good intentions of the Act seemed to have disappeared, and questions have been raised about some of the interventions made on behalf of the Minister into the functioning of sports federations.

The purpose of this article is to provide an overview of the amendments to the National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act 118 of 2007 and their implications.

NATIONAL SPORT AND RECREATION AMENDMENT ACT 118 OF 2007
The National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act evolved from the amendments to the National Sport and Recreation Act 110, which is aimed at ensuring that the Minister of Sport was able to “intervene in certain sport disputes; to provide for the issuing of guidelines for the promotion of equity, representivity and redress in sport and recreation; and to provide for matters connected therewith” (National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act 118 of 2007).

On the one hand the arguments in favour of the amendments to the Act have been motivated by the fact that one of the shortcomings in the governance of sport in our country has been that the Minister of Sport and Recreation, while being bestowed through the National Sport and Recreation Act 110 of 1998 with the responsibility for sport and recreation in South Africa, did not have the necessary authority to perform this function adequately. The amendments to the Act were seen to have been aimed at rectifying this shortcoming. While many in the general public saw this new Act as a positive move, its detractors have cried foul, with hardened sportspeople and other members of the general public alleging that this move can be seen as nothing more than the government “meddling” in sport.
Supporting these arguments are various media reports that are positioned in a manner that portrays the amendments in a negative light. This paper explores this perception.

NATIONAL SPORT AND RECREATION AMENDMENT BILL 2006

The preamble to the National Sport and Recreation Amendment Bill 2006 sets out the intention of the amendment as follows:

Whereas government has a constitutional obligation to ensure good and responsible governance of sport and recreation in the Republic;
And whereas the administration of sport and recreation in the Republic has been entrusted to sport and recreation bodies;
And whereas sport and recreation belongs to the nation over which government with its elected representatives has an overall responsibility;
And whereas recorded malpractices and poor governance in sport has resulted in disputes over the past few years necessitate intervention by government;
And in order to redress the inequalities in sport and recreation by optimizing the participation, involvement and ownership of previously disadvantaged communities in the playing, administration, management and support of sport and recreation in the Republic (National Sport and Recreation Amendment Bill 2006)

NATIONAL ASSET

The International sports-controlling bodies, while vigorously rejecting any government interference in sport, welcome good governance from all their national affiliates. To this end, in entrusting the national federations with administering and running sport in this country, the Minister of Sport, through structures set up by parliament, must ensure that sport is administered with good governance and in a transparent and responsible manner. This responsibility of the Minister cannot be seen as a “nice to have” function but must be regarded as one that has full legislative powers afforded to him by an Act of parliament.

It can be argued that, up until the passing of the Amendment Act, the Minister had to rely heavily on the national federations and their structures in order to perform his functions, and on reflection of the current state of some of the federations in South Africa, the Minister has been let down. Therefore in order to perform his legislative responsibilities and also to ensure that the people of this country derive maximum benefit from what rightfully belongs to them, the Amendment Act is a vehicle that is now available to the Minister to ensure compliance by national federations.

PUBLIC AND MEDIA VIEWS

In June 2008, the national news reported that both the South African Soccer Association and the South African Rugby Union were summoned to parliament to appear before parliament’s Portfolio Committee on Sport to answer questions about the lack of screening of matches under their jurisdiction on the public broadcasting channel (SABC 3 News). From the answers provided by the president of the rugby union, it was found that the public broadcaster instead of the sports federation was at fault because it was felt by the public broadcaster that “soapies” could not be sacrificed for the broadcasting of rugby matches (Interview: President of the South African Rugby Union).

In February 2008 the general council of Cricket South Africa was requested to appear before parliament’s Portfolio Committee on Sport to answer questions about Cricket South Africa’s transformation policy, and the public spat between its president and its chief executive officer about the selection of the national team (Meeting: Portfolio Committee on Sport, February 2008). Not long after this visit to parliament, the Independent on Saturday reported that the president of Cricket South Africa was still trying to enforce the transformation policy that was endorsed by the
Portfolio Committee, “It is understood that the president of Cricket South Africa, Norman Arendse, ‘reluctantly’ rubber-stamped the squad that includes only six players of colour instead of the required seven. . . .’” (The Independent on Saturday 2008). This ‘reluctance’ as reported by the media stems from the transformation policy which states that in touring squads of 14 or more there should be at least seven players of colour (Cricket South Africa, transformation policy).

Minister asked to intervene in rugby
Sport minister Makhenkesi Stofile should use his new statutory powers to intervene in Mpumalanga rugby union, after the Pumas’ controversial fielding of a convicted killer and because of allegations of racism, MPs urged yesterday. It is the first time the national Assembly’s sport committee has called on the minister to use his powers in terms of the Sport and Recreation Amendment Act, which allows him to intervene in “any dispute, alleged mismanagement or any other related matter which is likely to bring a sport into dispute” (Mercury 2008a).

The Daily News (2008a) “MPs growing tired of Safa’s excuses” was one of the many headlines that drew attention:
MPS are expected to take a tough stance against the truant SA Football Association (Safa) after repeated failures by the soccer bosses to appear before the committee. The national assembly’s sports portfolio committee wants Safa to explain the appointment of another Brazilian, Joel Santana to coach Bafana Bafana – despite the new Sports Act discouraging the appointment of foreigners to head local teams . . . The Committee will decide today on what course of action to take against Safa . . . Committee chairman, the fiery Butana Komphela, was quoted as saying they wanted Safa to satisfy them that there were no other South Africans suitable to coach Bafana Bafana . . .

Sunday Tribune Sport (2008) led with “Bully problem for hockey”:
The President of the SA Hockey Association (Saha), Dave Carr, has requested an urgent meeting with the South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (Sascoc) to discuss the composition of the men’s hockey team to attend the Olympic Games in Beijing. This week Carr was summoned to Cape Town by Parliamentary Sports Committee chairman Butana Komphela, who wants Saha to revert to a 2007 agreement whereby the men’s team would field equal numbers of white and non-white players in the squad of 16 for the Beijing Olympics.

“Call growing to nationalize Bafana team”, screamed the headlines of the Daily News (2008b):
Outspoken ANC MP Butana Komphela has reiterated earlier calls by sports and recreation minister Makhenkesi Stofile that Bafana Bafana be nationalized to be able to perform better during the Fifa Soccer World Cup in 2010.

This call by Butana Komphela (chairman of the Sport Committee of the National Assembly) was made after the recent below par performances of the national soccer team.

NATIONAL SPORT AND RECREATION AMENDMENT ACT 118 OF 2007
As already mentioned earlier, the intention of the National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act, where applicable, is to enable the Minister to intervene in certain sports disputes and to provide for the issuing of guidelines for the promotion of equity, representivity and redress in sport and recreation. While the Act in general takes care of housekeeping among other changes, which include the deletion, insertion and amendment of various aspects of the Act, of interest to this paper and its discussion are the following amendments:

Section 3A
The Sports Confederation and national federations must in the prescribed manner, enter into a service level agreement with the Sport and Recreation South Africa in respect of any function assigned to them by this Act.

The inclusion of this section in the Act creates a legal arrangement between the parties concerned and as such is enforceable and binding.
Section 6

(d)(3) national federations must –
(a) before recruiting a foreign sport person to participate in sport in the Republic, satisfy themselves that there are no other persons in the Republic suitable to participate in such a sport,
(b) ensure that such a recruited sports person complies with all the relevant criteria pertaining to entry into the Republic as contemplated in the Immigration Act, 2002 (Act No. 13 of 2002); and
(c) advise the Minister in writing of the full names and countries of origin of all such persons recruited for such purposes and confirm that there are no other suitable persons in the republic as contemplated in paragraph (a),
(d) ensure that the recruitment conforms to the guidelines issued by the Minister in terms of section 13A.

The above insertion, while ensuring that citizens of South Africa are given fair employment opportunities, opens up the possibility for federations to be dictated to in the employment of its personnel. While on the one hand this insertion provides employment protection for the citizens of the country, on the other hand it asks the question: Who decides on the final capabilities of a foreigner against a citizen of this country and furthermore, what are the repercussions if the Minister does not accept the explanation of the national federation?

Section 10(2)(b)
National federations must annually indicate to Sport and Recreation South Africa in writing, the names of the specific clubs under its respective control and the promotion of funding that these clubs have received during the specific year for development purposes from funding provided to these clubs by –
(i) the national federations out of the funds received from Sport and Recreation South Africa;
(ii) the national federation out of its own funds; and
(iii) the national federations out of the funds received from other persons or bodies.

Section 10(3)(a)
No funding will be provided and no recognition as prescribed will be given by Sport and Recreation South Africa to national or recreation federations where –
(i) no development programmes exist;
(ii) or where federations exclude persons from the disadvantaged groups, particularly women and people with disabilities, from participating at top level of sport; or
(iii) national federations have misused the funding referred to in subsection (2)

The above amendments to Section 10, read in conjunction with the existing clause, provide for punitive action by the Minister against national federations but are problematic in their implementation because presently disadvantaged areas, in the main townships, lack the necessary sporting facilities and conditions conducive to provide meaningful sporting development. Against this background, national federations are expected to promote development.

While other parts of this Act allude to government help in providing the infrastructure and resources for development, government’s commitment, thus far, has been slow or non-existent. Therefore any punitive action or threat thereof would be difficult to implement.

Section 13(f)(5)(a)
Subject to paragraph (b), the Minister may, after consultation with the relevant MEC if applicable, intervene –
(i) in any dispute, alleged mismanagement, or any other related matter in sport or recreation that is likely to bring a sport or recreational activity into dispute; or
(ii) in any non compliance with guidelines or policies issued in terms of section 13A or any measures taken to protect or advance persons or categories of persons, disadvantaged by
unfair discrimination as contemplated in section 9(2) of the Constitution by referring the matter for mediation or issuing a directive, as the case may be.

**Section 13 (f)(5)(b)**

The Minister may not –

(i) intervene if the dispute or mismanagement in question has been referred to the Sports Confederation for resolution, unless the Sports Confederation fails to resolve such dispute within a reasonable time; and

(ii) interfere in matters relating to the selection of teams, administration of sport and appointment of, or termination of the service of, the executive members of the sport or recreation body.

**Section 13(f)(5)(c)**

If a national federation fails to adhere to a decision of the mediator or directive issued by the Minister as referred to paragraph (a), the Minister may –

(i) direct Sport and Recreation South Africa to refrain from funding such federation;

(ii) notify the national federation in writing that it will not be recognized by Sport and Recreation South Africa; and

(iii) publish his or her decision as contemplated in subparagraph (i) and (ii) in the Gazette.

Section 13 in particular as referred to above has to a large extent been used as a premise for the recent spate of appearances by sports federations before parliament’s Portfolio Committee on Sport. While the Act is very clear about the jurisdiction and possible actions that can be taken by the Minister, the views as expounded by the media reports have been to the contrary.

This section of the Act does not allow the Minister or any other parliamentary structure to intervene without sound reason, neither does it allow the Minister or any of his officials to become personally involved in any of the disputes faced by the national federations. It is for this reason that the Act specifies that the Minister’s intervention results in his referring the matter to mediation. In addition, the Act is clear about the Minister’s intervention: the Minister may not “interfere in matters relating to the selection of teams, administration of sport and appointment of, or termination of the service of, the executive members of the sports or recreation body” (National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act 18 of 2007).

**Section 13A**

“`The Minister must issue guidelines or policies to promote equity, representivity and redress in sport and recreation.”`

This section of the Act allows the Minister to ensure that redress in the transformation of sport is taken seriously by national federations. This is an important piece of legislation in order to ensure that all people in our country are provided with equal opportunity to fully realise their potential. While this part of the Act is crucial for various reasons, it must be realised that the national federations cannot be expected to deliver in isolation of government’s support and commitment. Expectation by parliament’s Portfolio Committee on Sport for the national federations to answer for the lack of delivery while they themselves provide only lip service to support leads to some of the controversy that media have reported on.

**CONCLUSION**

The above discussion has shown that through the preamble to the Bill and the subsequent Act, parliament’s Portfolio Committee on Sport has requested the various national sports federations to answer to them on the “goings on” in the sport under their jurisdiction.

The media have in general shown that sports administration on the whole has come under scrutiny by government but more specifically by the Portfolio Committee on Sport under the chairmanship of Butana Komphela. Various national sports federations, including rugby, cricket,
athletics and hockey, have already been summoned to appear before the Committee to explain certain events that have clouded these federations in the recent past. This has resulted in an outcry from hardened sportspeople and the public about government increased “meddling” in sport. Is this outcry justified?

On the International front we have not heard about any sanctions imposed against our national federations for the scrutiny they have been subjected to by the government. The only conclusion that can be drawn from this silence is that the international federations do not – as yet anyway – consider the government to be interfering in sport.

From the above, it would be reasonable to assume that, in terms of the National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act 18 of 2007, the scrutiny by the government of the national sport federations is legitimate. Of course, the public would think not! Is this justified?

To complicate matters, The Mercury (2008b: 2) led with the story that “Boycotters play with fire, says Komphela’s deputy”. It is reported that the South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (Sascoc) resolved “at the weekend that sports federations would not return to parliament until Komphela has been removed as committee chairman”. The article further states that the president of Sascoc was quoted as saying that they would return only when “we have a leader of the Committee we can engage with in a constructive and positive manner”.

Whether the chairman of the Portfolio Committee on Sport has lost his way or not, does Sascoc have the liberty to boycott the request by the Committee for Sascoc to appear before them? The jury is split . . .

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CONFLICT AND PEDAGOGY: MODEL-BUILDING FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION TRAINING IN MULTICULTURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R Haines* & L Snodgrass†

ABSTRACT
One of the greatest challenges facing the post-apartheid South African state is the transformation of the education system, and addressing the tradition of violence and psychosocial dislocation, as well as managing cultural diversity. The move to multicultural schooling has created an urgent need to address what schools can or should do about the multiple cultural realities that are now represented in schools. Both government and educational practitioners have stressed the need to equip principals, teachers, learners and parents with the values, attitudes, knowledge and skills to understand and manage conflict in a constructive fashion. Research conducted in two secondary multicultural schools explored the development of a conflict management training programme for learners. The findings of this conflict case study show that an eclectic approach to conflict management training using elicitive strategies that embed “culture” in the training programme can be implemented with success in these settings. This study also indicates that the multidisciplinary field of conflict resolution and management can be blended with holistic approaches to educational policy and practice. Such interventions are crucial in micro- and meso-level interventions in strengthening social cohesion and social peace, which in turn will provide a more conducive environment for economic development.

INTRODUCTION
At a national level, there is a growing body of policy, and accompanying regulations and prescriptions, for improving discipline and social control systems in schools in South Africa. However, for such interventions to make a difference, there should be more self-conscious interaction between educational theory and practice, and the accompanying policy-making process on the one hand, and the burgeoning field of conflict resolution on the other.

The construction and implementation of sophisticated but robust approaches to managing and reducing conflict and disciplinary problems in South African schools require an understanding of the patterns of diversity in these schools, and the changing cultural and class divides. Chisholm (2004) has analysed the shift from racial to class divisions in schools, but more meso- and micro-level research is required to chart the migration of learners to schools formerly the preserve of apartheid-structured and -designated ethnic groups. In this regard, the shift of learners from multicultural backgrounds to so-called Model C (or formerly white) schools, and from black township schools to those previously constituted by Indian or coloured pupils is significant. It is particularly in regard to the latter situation that the locus of conflict on multicultural lines appears to be most intense.

While pupil profiles of such schools have changed (and continue to change), teacher profiles have not changed significantly. This has meant that a preponderance of coloured or Indian teachers have remained in former coloured or Indian schools, resulting in increased burdens on teaching staff to interpret and mediate multicultural conflict, with at best rudimentary conflict resolution techniques.

This article shows how appropriate models for conflict resolution interventions can be created and implemented in multicultural secondary-school environments. Such models can be integrated
with existing structures and practices, and do not require a radical restructuring of school structures. It is argued that this model construction should take heed of the growing recourse globally to qualitative research and post-positivist approaches in the design of regulatory frameworks for secondary-school management. And while it is not a formal focus in this article, the growing scholarly recognition of links between conflict resolution and peace-building interventions on the one hand (e.g. Canzanelli 2001: 31), and development policy on the other should be one of the subtexts of research in the field of model-building for efficacious conflict dilution and resolution.

Conflict resolution is a growing interdisciplinary body of knowledge – an applied social science for the most part – which needs to be taken more cognisance of in educational theory and practice (Deutsch & Coleman 2000; Johnson & Johnson 2004). At theoretical, applied theoretical and practical levels, the approaches and techniques from conflict resolution must be used more systematically within both primary and secondary schools. In a sense, this provides a broader context for a series of state-sanctioned interventions, such as positive discipline. But these interventions demand a more coherent and deliberate interplay between conflict resolution theory and approaches, and current educational policy design, interpretation and implementation. This article shows how conflict resolution training can be applied meaningfully in multicultural settings and how this interdisciplinary approach can inform the more conventional educational approaches.

THE CONFLICT CASE STUDY

The level of violence and conflict in South African schools is of grave concern to all involved in education, and requires research into the nature of the conflict, and interventions and training that will address these problems. According to scholars, in many cases the interventions implemented in South African schools have been conducted without an understanding of the conflict and have been “dictated by guesswork, personal prejudice or the domination of viewpoints” (Kasiram, Keen & Naidoo 1996: 374) of certain stakeholders, who have decided on the nature of the interventions. Stevens, Wyngard and Van Niekerk (2001: 154) stress that the proliferation of intervention strategies aimed at violence reduction among youth has often been based on “good intentions”, rather than on a detailed analysis of the conflict. Many conflict management programmes in South Africa have been strongly influenced by overseas models.

A comparative case study conducted in two multicultural Eastern Cape South African schools revealed that conflict in both schools is multifaceted and caused by a complex pattern of micro-factors (interpersonal and intergroup) and macro-factors linked to socioeconomic conditions and the transforming educational system. Teachers and learners expressed concern about what they perceived as the deteriorating school environment, and issues that were found pertinent were discipline, diversity and multilingualism. Interviews revealed that racism, prejudice and discrimination were not really confronted by teachers and school management. Teachers acknowledged that there was “avoidance” behaviour among ethnic groups in both schools but did not see this as a major source of conflict. Teachers and learners had an incomplete understanding of the role of conflict and violence, equating conflict only with overt, physical violence. The challenge for the scholar-practitioner was to plan an intervention that catered for the needs of these schools and addressed the problems holistically. A training programme was developed for learners, and is described and discussed below.

DEVELOPING THE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

The training of the learners in both schools involved an eclectic approach, which incorporated both prescriptive and elicitive approaches. Based on the information gathered and the need to identify and explore the theories and core assumptions, the development of the training programme for learners in both schools involved consideration of the following aspects:
Understanding the nature of conflict

In order to manage conflict constructively, those involved must recognise that it exists. Conflict exists among individuals and groups when incompatible activities occur (Deutsch 1973). The mapping of the conflict revealed that teachers and learners had an incomplete and inaccurate understanding of the terms “conflict” and “violence”, associating conflict with extreme acts of violence and danger. They needed to be made aware that the goal of conflict management is not to eliminate conflict, as conflict is an inevitable and pervasive part of school life and has many positive outcomes, but rather that the goal was to eliminate violence in all its different manifestations. In the words of Johnson and Johnson (2004: 35), “conflicts provide insights into other perspectives and life experiences, strengthen relationships, add fun and drama to life, increase disputants’ ability to cope with stress and be resilient in the face of adversity, and increase general psychological health”. These authors say that students generally have a negativity bias in which they see conflicts as always involving anger, hostility and violence, and do not recognise conflicts “when they lead to laughter, insight, learning and problem-solving”.

Choosing an appropriate conflict strategy

It was important to enhance awareness of different conflict behaviours, such as aggression, avoidance and constructive problem-solving. The study revealed that participants, especially teachers, had an incomplete understanding of “avoidance” behaviour and saw it as an absence of conflict. The communication process is central to the concept of choosing a strategy. Conflict is constituted and sustained by the behaviours, both verbal and non-verbal, of the parties involved and their reactions to one another. The use of often violent and abusive communication in these schools was a source of concern and anxiety for teachers and learners alike. Learners described this communication as racist and contributing to intergroup tension in these schools.

Problem-solving

The contribution of educational theories to the field of conflict management highlights the importance of critical-thinking skills, which assist in problem-solving, as well as of cooperative learning environments and their role in school-based conflict management. Heydenberk and Heydenberk (2000: 10) propose that conflict resolution and critical-thinking skills are seen as “related and complementary” and that “problem-solving, critical-thinking skills and conflict resolution skills . . . [occupy] different places on a continuum”. They add that “perspective-taking abilities; listening and comprehension [and] divergent thinking abilities” are all skills that are needed by students to learn conflict resolution, especially when they encounter different values that are often the source of conflicts. Speaking from a broader perspective, Schulze (2003: 6), observes that in a post-apartheid environment “critical thinking, rational thought and deeper understanding [are] seen as ways to break down class, race and gender stereotypes”.

Deutsch (1994, 2000a) sees cooperative learning and conflict resolution as two interrelated movements in education, which develop learners’ skills in perspective-taking, communication and problem-solving. Deutsch and other authors cited in this study have consistently argued that conflict management processes are strongly influenced by the context in which the conflict occurs. For example, Harris (1990: 20) argues that competitive environments contribute to “the violence of traditional education” because individuals focus on antagonistic interests, exhibit distrust and suspicion, and communicate in misleading ways. Research has shown that in a cooperative climate, where there is a perceived similarity of goals, and trust and open communication, learners have more time to engage in critical thinking. In a study of school practices that positively affect race relations, it was found that “discussions about race were less effective than actual interracial interaction in improving learners’ interracial behaviour and attitudes” (Slavin & Maddon in Day-Vines et al. 1996: 340)
Experiential learning
According to Kolb (1984), experiential learning is a process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Marsick and Sauquet (2000: 384) explain that learning takes place as “people interpret and reinterpret their experience in light of a growing, cumulative set of insights and then revise their actions to meet their goals”. Maas (1990) offers a working definition, which holds that experiential learning refers to learning activities that engage the learner directly in the phenomena being studied. The research team was well aware of the role of experiential learning and the necessity of a programme that included role-plays and opportunities to transform experience. Marsick and Sauquet (2000: 384) argue that, for people to learn deeply from experience, they must “reflect critically on the assumptions, values and beliefs that shape their understanding”. It was thus important to incorporate these insights into the development of the programme.

Appreciating diversity
Conflict emerges as part of the interdependence between the individual and the socio-contextual learning environment. In multicultural school settings, various barriers emerge between learners, and language, ethnicity or culture, social class, gender, and personal and social differences become part of these interactions and infiltrate relationships (Vogel et al. 2003: 27). In both these schools, these barriers are a serious obstacle to a culture of teaching and learning, and have resulted in direct violence, both verbal and physical. In post-apartheid South Africa, these schools experience additional and unique problems. Educators and learners, who have had very different experiences of the transformation process as a result of their position in the apartheid racial system, are interacting together for the first time (Finchilescu & Dawes 1998: 563). The deep-rooted nature of the conflict around issues concerning ethnicity, identity and language in these schools, which is part of the legacy in this country, means that any conflict management training or intervention cannot overlook these issues and relegate them to secondary importance.

The contact hypothesis
Smit (2002: 18) argues that two major approaches have been employed to reduce intergroup tension: “facilitative conditions and conflict resolution programmes”. Facilitative conditions are based on Allport’s (1954) contact hypothesis. What emerges from the literature is that, under certain conditions, intergroup contact can facilitate positive relationships. There is considerable debate about the ‘ideal’ contact conditions. Mynhardt and Du Toit (1990: 286–292) argue that these basic preconditions are important because it is not the contact per se that leads to positive attitude change, but the experience of the contact. The preconditions cited by most authors are, inter alia, contact on an equal basis between two groups; contact in an intimate, pleasant and rewarding institutional climate; cooperative interdependence; opportunities for personal friendships; and opportunities for self-revealing interactions.

The participation hypothesis
Ross (2000b) cites Verba (1961) and others, who find a great deal of evidence for the proposition that active involvement in a process builds commitment. The participation hypothesis suggests that people will be more committed to goals that they articulate and establish themselves. Ross adds that people become invested psychologically when they spend time on an activity and that participation builds a new social identity which is sustained, at least in part, by working towards common goals. Ross also comments that Lederach’s (1995, 1997) concept of elicitive conflict resolution builds on this hypothesis. In the elicitive approach, participants define a conflictual situation and contribute to the design of a contextually relevant model for the resolution of the conflict.
PRESCRIPTIVE AND ELICITIVE APPROACHES TO CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TRAINING

Lederach (1995: 48–53) describes the “prescriptive approach”, in which the trainer is the “expert” and knows what the participants need – the trainer’s knowledge is the key resource to be transferred. The trainer’s expertise is often brought to the participants as a model made up of strategies suggesting how “conflict is resolved” and presenting different techniques to enable them to deal with conflict effectively. This approach is understood and presented as skills-building. For Lederach, this modality tends to reduce conflict resolution to “technology – to technique and skill which become key aspects both of the training and of subsequent application of the model”.

One of the central criticisms of the prescriptive approach, and an important consideration in this study, is that the cultural and ideological underpinnings of the model are rarely made explicit; “they are however, the very elements that tend to emerge from the context where the model was developed”. Lederach (1995) observes that culture is often seen as an additional level of expertise added to the repertoire of the already trained and thus is not embedded in the model presented. Scholars have stressed that Western perspectives on conflict management and interventions have generally failed to consider the cultural contexts involved and have attempted to construct universal models and techniques applicable across all social domains (Augsberger 1992; Avruch & Black 1990; 1991; Kimmel 2000; Ross 1993a, 1993b, 2000a).

The debates concerning the different approaches to multiculturalism in South African schools have raised important issues. Approaches which recognise and “celebrate” diversity but do not fully engage with the underlying issues are criticised extensively (Vally 1999; Vandeyar 2003). For the scholar-practitioner to engage with diversity and culture in a superficial fashion, or as an “add-on” expertise in a conflict management training, seriously impoverishes the development of the conflict field. It has been extensively argued that conflicts are best approached through the cultural frameworks of the disputants as culture is rooted in the shared knowledge and schemes, created and used by groups for perceiving and responding to their social realities. Geertz (1973) in Avruch and Black (1991: 29) reminds us that to ignore the “locally constructed common sense understandings” of conflict is to seriously hamper the work of the conflict specialist.

Discussions have pointed to the use of the elicitive approach in cross-cultural training. Fundamentally, this approach builds on the knowledge in the setting, and thus, unlike the prescriptive approach, cannot bracket culture. “Culture, in other words, natural and taken for granted knowledge in a given setting, is understood as the foundation and seedbed of model development and creation” (Lederach 1995: 62). The relationship between participants and trainers redefines knowledge as implicit in the setting rather than in the trainer and redefines power as participation in discovery and naming, rather than transfer of knowledge. The table below provides a comparative summary of the two training approaches that have been discussed.

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<th>Table 1: Prescriptive/elicitive: A comparative summary</th>
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<td>Prescriptive</td>
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<td>Training as transfer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Resource: Model and knowledge of trainer</td>
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<td>Training as content oriented: Master approach and technique</td>
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<td>Empowerment as learning new ways and strategies for facing conflict</td>
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<td>Trainer as expert, model and facilitator</td>
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<td>Culture as technique</td>
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AN ECLECTIC MODEL FOR CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TRAINING

Diversity and issues around race and language were also the sources of destructive conflict in these schools, and it was recognised that culture had to be incorporated into the actual conflict training model. The “avoidance” behaviour of the groups meant that they had very little understanding of each other’s cultures. The diversity of the participants in both schools meant that creative approaches to training were needed. It was decided that an eclectic model would be used in the training at these schools, with certain key aspects of the elicitive approach emphasised.

The elicitive approach is very appealing because it highlights creativity and discovery, and allows the trainer to say, “I do not have the answer, but I can work together with others on a process that may help.” For Lederach (1995: 117–118), multicultural settings “represent enormous challenges requiring insight, sensitivity, and creativity”. In these settings, the training process is about relationships and the purpose is the “development of networks and linkages that can be sustained over time through training”. In this way, the trainer, as facilitator, draws from the cultural resources within the setting and is not concerned with a model which everyone must learn. The participants create their own model of conflict management drawing from their own common-sense understandings of conflict – the implicit knowledge of the group.

SETTING THE STAGE FOR THE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TRAINING

The purpose of the initial sessions of training was to set the stage and generate an atmosphere of trust and safety, so that the participatory process of joint exploration, learning and experimenting could begin. In the first session, the concepts of conflict and violence were explored. The purpose of this warming-up exercise was to get the group thinking about conflict, both destructive and constructive, and how it differs from violence. This creates an awareness of when a conflict is and is not occurring, and the potential constructive consequences of conflict. Instead of starting with a definition of conflict, participants gathered in small groups and listed everyday words and phrases synonymous or closely related to conflict. What emerged, as predicted, was that the participants had a negative bias in which conflict involved anger, hostility and violence. The facilitation then involved getting the groups to think about conflict in positive terms and the positives that can emerge from a constructive process. This involves a re-orientation in their thinking in which they come to realise that without conflict, or if conflict is not managed constructively, there is no growth, creativity and development in society.

SETTING UP ROLE-PLAY CREATION

Role-plays and simulations are a major part of conflict management training (Kimmel 2000; Lederach 2000; Lupton-Smith et al. 1996). In most training settings, they are used to practice a given skill or technique, learn the steps in a model or work on a specific conflict situation that involves certain conflict management skills, such as negotiation and mediation. In the prescriptive approach, the trainer often prepares the simulations and scenarios ahead of time, with detailed descriptions of the circumstances and instructions, laying out the various roles. In the elicitive approach, the use of role-play is a means for model discovery and creation rather than exclusively to practise a model. This means readjusting the thinking about the use of role-plays. Facilitators do not prepare role-plays before the training. They trust the participants’ own creative abilities by allowing them to identify and create their own conflict scenarios.

The elicitive approach to the use of role-plays is depicted in figure 1, in which the key steps are outlined: discover, categorise and describe, evaluate, and adapt or recreate, and practice. These five interrelated activities and the way they were implemented in the training will be described.
STAGING THE CONFLICT ROLE-PLAYS

The conflict scenarios that were scripted by the small groups were then staged for the entire group. The role-plays in both schools were based on incidents from the participants’ real-life experiences, and reflected a great deal of verbal and physical violence in their dramatisation. For example, girlfriend/boyfriend role-plays involved jealousy and frustration on the part of the girlfriend or boyfriend about another “love interest”, and jealous “catfights” ensued between two girls, or the boyfriend threatened his girlfriend either physically or verbally.

Discovery and description

The discovery process involves participants engaging and interacting with their own understandings of how conflict occurs and how their responses to it operate in their environments. This staging of the conflicts was important in identifying and categorising how conflicts were handled because it allowed participants to see the different behaviours in these settings. Each of the enacted scenarios was opened up for facilitated group discussion in which the “insider” knowledge of the participants was often clarified in relation to the “outsider” professional knowledge of the facilitator, and new understandings were co-generated. New mutual understanding emerged through open and supportive communication.
Mutual understanding that emerges from the staging of conflict involves skilful facilitation, which was part of the learning process for the members of the research team and the participants. In order to elicit responses from the group that could lead to identifying and categorising the conflict situations, certain questions were crucial to the facilitation process. The following excerpt is an example of a conflict scenario, quoted verbatim from the worksheet of one of the group’s preparation for the staging of their conflict situation.

Sitting on the corner with his friend. Now his other friends join them. They talk a bit. They ask him does he know this chick Stephanie. Ye! It’s my chick you know mos. Why?

His friends tell him that his friend he is drinking with is messing with his chick. He gets violent, leaves to go back for his gun, and comes back . . . shoots his friend and gets arrested . . . sentence to life without parole.

After each role-play, the focused group discussions gave participants ample opportunities to discuss their perceptions and reactions, explore a range of different responses, ask questions and elicit responses from others. In this way, they participated collectively in the activity and learned from others. The role of the facilitator was crucial in the process of creating a safe and comfortable climate in which everyone could participate fully. This involved conveying warmth and understanding, and diffusing heated situations or interactions as they arose. The differences between constructive and destructive conflict, and the different conflict behavioural styles were explored in the group discussion. Some examples of the questions asked are:

- What is happening here?
- What has caused this conflict?
- How did the conflict become destructive?

At first the participants were not forthcoming, but once they started exploring the different viewpoints, debates around different beliefs, assumptions and values emerged. In the above scenario, different values relating to friendships, relationships, gossip and rumours, drugs and alcohol, and the use of violence were discussed as they related to the realities of the participants’ environments. Debates sometimes became competitive, which created a “win-lose” orientation and led to faulty and simplistic reasoning that invited “battle and blame”. In order to avoid this, the facilitator skilfully encouraged and motivated participants to seek new information and perspectives, which led to constructive alternatives to the problems that emerged.

**Evaluation**

Part of learning from the role-plays in the elicitive approach is the element of contextualised evaluation, which occurs through the training process. Participants were asked not only to describe what happened but also to evaluate the action as part of experiential learning. They reflected on the actions and behaviour in the role-plays according to the standards and values of their particular setting, without having to judge these approaches according to outside criteria. Questions posed by the facilitator to elicit reflection were:

- What is helpful and good in this situation?
- How could this conflict be managed differently?
- What needs to be changed?

As discussed, reflection is central to every phase of learning from experience. Reflecting critically on the assumptions, values and beliefs that shape understanding can play a key role in this phase by opening up lines of thinking that would otherwise remain unexplored. These questions opened up the discussion and allowed the participants to see conflict from a generalised third-person perspective and from different viewpoints. Throughout the discussion, participants were exposed to alternative ways of dealing with conflicts in which people have diverse points of view, and had to learn to listen to other perspectives.
In support of the argument above, the problem-solving approach, which involves critical-thinking skills and the search for new ways of handling conflict, was adopted in the group discussions after the enactment of each scenario. The participants, guided by the questions above, were asked to generate alternative solutions to the conflicts presented. This step in the elicitive training process involves adapting old approaches, creating more effective and positive ways of dealing with conflict, and then experimenting with how conflicts should be approached. Part of this final step is the practical application of the new strategies. The training process must include exercise and opportunities for experimenting and refining the ideas, approaches and models that emerge. The groups were thus asked to rewrite the scripts they had presented and re-enact the new ways of dealing with these conflict situations. This provided the individual groups with an opportunity to practise the lessons learnt from the evaluation so that they could experience managing conflict in a constructive way.

DISCUSSION
The eclectic approach to the training, with its emphasis on scenario-based role-plays to promote learning with the integration of certain prescriptive elements (the transfer of certain factual information and knowledge), was perceived as successful in terms of the findings in this conflict case study. It was realised that the facilitator plays a crucial role in integrating both cognitive and experiential learning skills into the training and in drawing from the diverse experiences and perspectives of the group. Prescriptive elements which involve expert knowledge were important in clarifying concepts and providing guidance when there was confusion and the group appeared to be stuck. It was important for the participants to move beyond the current destructive patterns of dealing with conflict.

Role-plays were not only central to the learning during the conflict management training but were also an important part of the enjoyment of the training. These role-play activities provided the research team with a “window” into the participants’ implicit, “taken-for-granted” knowledge. This insight into the dynamics provided key understanding of the conflicts they encountered and the ways they approached their problems. This understanding served as a guide to the facilitator in the areas and aspects of learning that needed special attention during the focused discussions after each role-play. The use of violence, aggression and abusive language was significant in how they portrayed the various interactions in the role-plays and was also attributed to the adults (parents and teachers) in their scenarios.

The main advantage of the eclectic training approach used in this conflict case study is that culture was infused into the training. The use of scenario-based role-plays, which were created, enacted, evaluated and adapted/recreated by the participants, were crucial in allowing the participants to reflect on the actions and behaviours in the scenarios according to the standards and values of their environments, rather than by externally imposed criteria. Kimmel (2000: 463) says that role-play that makes “such contextual information explicit enables participants to understand and grow beyond their current cultural identity”. What was interesting was that drawing on the common-sense, implicit knowledge (within-setting knowledge) of the participants allowed them to see that the conflict and problems they faced were similar. As adolescents, they faced the same challenges in dealing with issues concerning identity, autonomy and relationships. The realities of their school and communities meant that they had common experiences relating to violence, crime, aggression, and alcohol and drug abuse.

CONCLUSION
This article has stressed the importance of constructing conflict resolution models for secondary schools that take conceptual cognisance of the substantive multicultural environment of South African schools, and the embedded possibilities for structural conflict in the schoolyard and
schoolroom. This is especially so for under-resourced former Indian and coloured schools, which are ill equipped for dealing with dramatic demographic shifts as result of the relatively unchanged teaching corps.

The systematic use of conflict resolution models should ideally be integrated in more synoptic approaches to related school effectiveness and whole school development, as well as contribute to efforts to manage cross-cultural perceptions and practices. More broadly, it is not merely a question of trying to reduce or ameliorate conflict and violence in schools, but of seeking to construct more civically minded and tolerant school environments. As Clive Harber argues, it is vital that schools “can and do contribute to a culture of democracy and non-violence” (Harber 1997: 1). This vision should impact on efforts to create a more innovative, reflexive school environment, and ultimately to create a more critically productive social economy within the country as a whole.

More generally, it needs to be recognised in future research that efforts at building more peaceful schools should be part of a broader national effort aimed at integrating conflict resolution approaches and techniques to developmental interventions from local to national levels.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYER-OF-CHOICE STATUS AND EMPLOYER BRANDING

JHS Ohlhoff*

ABSTRACT
In a competitive and globalised business environment, organisations are faced with the challenge of attracting talented employees, since these individuals are considered to be the source of a sustainable competitive advantage. The concepts of “employer of choice” and “employer branding” have been related in the literature and even combined as “employer-of-choice branding”. The concepts are briefly explored and it is illustrated that, although closely related, they are conceptually different. The conclusion is that organisations should start implementing the internal changes aimed at being awarded employer-of-choice status as a foundation before building and promoting an employer brand.

INTRODUCTION
A key challenge facing organisations in this era is the attraction and retention of talent. Collins (2001: 13) remarks that “[p]eople are not your most valuable asset. The Right People are”. These same “Right People” are what create a sustainable competitive advantage (Bossidy & Charam 2002: 110) in the face of increased competition and globalisation. According to Helen Handfield-Jones, co-author of a McKinsey study titled War for Talent 2000 (Harvard Management Update 2001: 5), “talent is critical to value creation in the information age and great talent has a much bigger impact than even average talent”.

The challenges faced by organisations in recruiting are distinctly different from those in the War for Talent days in the late 1990s. The environment is leaner, budgets are tighter, and everyone carries more responsibility. The pressure of finding the right person for a position is even higher (Gary 2005: 3). These challenges have given rise to the need for organisations to position themselves in such a manner that they attract talented individuals and it is this need that is addressed by the creation of an employer brand and attaining the status of an employer of choice (Maitland 2002: 40). The difference in employer-of-choice status and employer branding is that an employer-of-choice status is awarded by employees while employer branding refers to the company’s efforts in promoting, internally and externally, an unambiguous view of what makes it different and desirable as an employer (Backhaus & Tikoo 2004: 502).

EMPLOYER-OF-CHOICE STATUS

Defining an employer of choice
Organisations positioned as “top organisations for which employees in general would prefer to work” (Solecki 2003: 1) are those that have employer-of-choice status. Becoming an employer of choice requires organisations to engage employees (Maitland 2002: 40; Lee 2001: 2). There are various definitions of “engagement” but it basically refers to a bond, attachment or allegiance employees have to their organisation.

Becoming an employer of choice
Maitland (2002: 40) cites two philosophies as to how employee engagement is best achieved: bottom-up engagement and top-down engagement. Bottom-up engagement is related to the employees’ work experience. This is constituted by the enjoyment of work, training, performance
evaluation and participation. The factors are mostly controlled by first-level supervision and lower levels of management, hence the term “bottom-up”. In contrast, top-down engagement is determined by an organisation’s leadership. Factors such as the company vision and mission, communication of progress, integrity, employee development and caring for customers are what constitute top-down engagement.

International Survey Research (ISR) (Maitland 2002: 40) shows that “bottom-up” experiences influence employee satisfaction with their companies, but their level of commitment to its future success is determined to a greater extent by the “top-down” functioning.

Ideally, then, the two approaches need to be combined since apart from having a positive work experience, employees also desire to work for a company that has a positive image and engenders values with which employees can identify.

Research done by Sutherland, Torricelli and Karg (2002) on the criteria for attracting knowledge workers revealed 11 employer-of-choice factors from a sample of postgraduate business students. These included: a corporate culture of career growth and challenging work; personal training and development; pay (including its being linked to performance), profit sharing; large organisation offering job rotation and diversity; global, innovative company based on good products; successful company based on strong products; challenging work in a non-hierarchical company (excluding job security and/or large organisation); liking the work and industry; value-based organisation valuing employees; cultural diversity; social responsibility; access to resources; benefits such as fringe benefits, status and work experience; and lastly comfort in knowing existing staff, small organisation, casual dress and a comfortable working environment.

In particular, career growth opportunities and a challenging work environment were found to be the most important attributes of an employer of choice. They can be distilled into the following combined definition: those employers who offer a competitive advantage, use knowledge to add value to processes, and are producers, managers and disseminators of information in a post-industrial, post-service globalised economy (Sutherland et al. 2002: 14). The above-mentioned study provides insight into what an employer has to offer in order to become an employer of choice, although it is limited to postgraduate business students as a population, i.e. a narrow application of the definition of knowledge workers.

Beckett-Hughes (2003: 40–41) makes ten practical suggestions which companies can implement to become an employer of choice. The first is that the right psychological contract must be created. In this respect cognisance has to be taken of the factors that motivate employees as well as the “balance” of the “account” in the trust relationship. Secondly, companies are encouraged to know and live their corporate values. In order to achieve this, organisations should obtain broad input in the definition of values and need to decide which behaviours are consistent with the values and how this will be rewarded.

The third suggestion is to assess individual values and behavioural styles. This will assist companies to create the right framework and language for recruitment and development decisions, but it must be supported by assessment feedback loops. Fourthly, companies need to create a coaching culture. This would entail focusing on an individual’s personal and professional development and would require, inter alia, that people managers be trained as coaches. The fifth suggestion is that people processes be branded. This hinges around the employer’s unique selling points, which should be used to build a brand proposition, and all literature should be designed with this in mind.

A further suggestion is to offer flexible benefits. The rationale for this is that different employees are motivated differently since individuals are unique. Developing flexible benefit packages allow people to choose how they receive discretionary elements of remuneration. The seventh suggestion, endorsing employees’ need for a better work–life balance, requires a change of paradigm for most senior managers since the focus must move from attendance to performance.
Flexible working arrangements such as job sharing and part-time work should be made available to all employees.

The eighth suggestion is to be realistic and market driven. Attrition of talent requires a tactical approach. Beckett-Hughes (2003: 40–41) asks whether companies should not perhaps consider cooperation with other companies or whether some tedious elements should not be outsourced. Reinforcing social ties is considered important, since people are more loyal to individuals than organisations.

The second-last suggestion was for people managers to create an environment where employees can have some fun and find more ways to relate to people. Although formal teambuilding is important, fun activities which lighten the mood are equally important. Teams should be allowed to indicate what means most to them, e.g. football, fashion, or fish and chips.

The last suggestion is to systematically eliminate the top ten things which are tolerated in any department but which drain employees’ energy. According to Beckett-Hughes (2003: 41), this will release positive energy and eliminate a drag effect.

The Hay Group (HR Focus 2003: 3–4) proposes a similar list of seven ways to make your company an employer of choice. The list is as follows: offer employees a clear sense of direction and vision; create a culture that puts a high priority on customer responsiveness, product/service quality and teamwork; understand and respect the connection between people and success; provide the basic requirements to enable employees to succeed in their positions; maintain fair and equitable compensation, and competitive or better benefits; reduce status differences and barriers; and foster an aspect of culture that employees see as “special”.

Solecki (2003: 13, 15) notes that becoming an employer of choice requires sound human resource (HR) management. After comparing various factors considered in literature and popular surveys (abroad and in South Africa), he proposes a framework of criteria for employers of choice.

Similarly, an investigation into variables considered important by valued employees, defined as talent by Birt, Wallis and Winternitz (2004: 27), has shown that there are five top variables: compensation and benefits; organisational environment; work/development environment; work–life balance; and a concern with employment equity and affirmative action.

Beckett-Hughes (2003: 40) notes that there is no simple formula for success as an employer of choice. One should perhaps also guard against a view that seeks to adopt a set of criteria or guidelines which will change any organisation into an employer of choice since organisations, being constituted by people, are all unique.

There are, however, similarities in the aspects considered important in becoming an employer of choice, and these point towards an integrated approach to people management which requires the “implementation of best practices and sound human resource management” (Solecki 2003: 13).

According to Astrid Warren, HR director of Microsoft SA, their ability to communicate with their employees regarding their needs has helped them achieve the “best company to work for” award for 2004 (Management Today 2005: 13). Becoming an employer of choice is not only about the internal changes required, however advantageous, but also communicating the status internally and externally to retain and attract staff.

**EMPLOYER BRANDING**

A company’s marketing efforts, such as advertising, promotions and other marketing efforts, influence the image consumers and employees (both current and potential) develop of the company. According to Capelli (2001: 140), a survey by wetfeet.com, who provide applicants with information about employers, indicated that 20% of applicants had applied to a specific company for a position as a result of having seen the company’s product advertisements.

People management has been related to marketing concepts in other terms as well. As mentioned above, Becket-Hughes (2003: 40) cites branding of people processes as a practical step...
to becoming an employer of choice. Bechaard (2003: 42) discusses the advantages of internally branding the HR department in order to facilitate the acceptance of HR as a strategic partner. This is, however, more related to internal marketing that promoting a brand to external stakeholders. Boudreau and Ramstad (2005: 23–24) recommend the use of segmentation in the management of talent. Indeed, positioning the company to attract a targeted source of recruits, namely talented employees, is by definition a segmentation approach.

Taking into account the possible positive effect marketing can have on attracting top talent, it is imperative that organisations not only take note of it, but proactively manage it to maximise the potential gains. Marketing principles such as segmentation and branding have to be applied in order to attract the top talent (Capelli 2001: 140; Van Dyk & Herholdt 2004: 54).

According to Van Dyk and Herholdt (2004: xi), every company has an employer brand, regardless of whether or not they are aware of it and actively manage it.

Employer branding is seen by some to be a new approach to gain an edge in the war for talent (Sutherland et al. 2002: 14). The modern labour market represents a true market where employers could view their employment offer as a product. Brands and reputations have always been important in large open competitive markets. Now this is also true of the labour market (Capelli 2001: 140). Jarzebowski (2003b: 22) states that the time has come for HR departments to utilise branding strategies to ensure that their companies attract the best candidates.

Since the importance of an employer brand has been established, it is perhaps prudent to consider what a brand is and how it should be managed. According to Kotler (1997: 443), a brand name is “essentially a seller’s promise to consistently deliver a specific set of features, benefits and services to the buyers”. The American Marketing Association’s definition is as follows: “a name, term, sign, symbol, or combination of them that is designed to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors”.

Employer branding, as a key strategy for attracting and retaining the best talent, uses aspects of corporate identity and reputation specifically to achieve the multiple objectives of HR management (Sutherland et al. 2002: 14).

To be able to use corporate identity in building an employer brand, one needs to look at the components of a corporate identity or brand. Balmer and Soenen (1999: 74) propose a corporate identity mix. It is clear that, according to this approach, many of the aspects that are considered essential to have implemented properly to become an employer of choice are related or similar to the aspects included in this model. In particular, it is interesting to note that Balmer and Soenen note employee affinity as part of the soul of the corporate identity.

Aaker (2004: 7–10) describes the corporate brand as being primarily defined by organisational associations. Corporate brands have associations to the following: heritage, assets and capabilities, people, values and priorities, local or global framework, citizenship programmes and a performance record.

These associations seem to indicate that the terms “corporate brand” and “corporate identity” are closely related and explain why they are frequently used interchangeably.

CORPORATE IDENTITY AND EMPLOYER BRANDING

The goal, from a people management perspective, should be to align employees (both current and prospective) with organisational vision and values. According to Sutherland et al. (2002: 14), research by the Conference Board showed that companies can either follow a dedicated employer branding strategy or incorporate the goal into their broader corporate branding strategy.

To indicate the difference between corporate identity and an employer brand, the Conference Board defined the two terms as follows:

A corporate brand embodies company values and a promise of value to be delivered. It may be used to differentiate your company from competitors, based on your strengths, your corporate culture, corporate style and future direction;
Employer branding encompasses the firm’s value system, policies and behaviours, towards the objective of attracting, motivating and retaining the firm’s current and potential employees (Conference Board 2001 cited in Sutherland et al. 2002: 14).

**ELEMENTS OF A BRAND**

A brand could consist of tangible and intangible elements. Tangible elements refer to physical attributes of a brand that can be trademarked and identify or differentiate the brand such as the logo, brand name, symbols, characters, slogans, jingles and packaging (Van Dyk & Herholdt 2004: 35).

Intangible brand elements, as mentioned in most marketing handbooks according to Van Dyk and Herholdt (2004: 35), are as follows:

- **Brand personality**, which are the human traits that people associate with a brand.
- **Brand experiences**, which are the primary type of human appeal that the product or service present and the type of human experience they target.
- **Brand communities**, which are specialised groupings, based on social relationships among users of a brand.
- **Parent brands or a corporate brand**, which complicates the corporate and multinational environment since a brand must operate under the “parent brand”.

Ellwood (2002: 125) describes a brand in terms of its DNA. A brief description of the elements follows.

- **Business culture** refers to the type of industry of preferred business strategy of the company.
- **Consumer culture** relates to the effect of media and elements of image to influence consumers in their thought processes, education and decision-making processes. **Self-image** refers to the use of brands by consumers to create or maintain, or even improve, their own self-image.

The **social image** is related to the self-image, but it is more public and can have many facets, depending on the context. **Rational benefits** refer to the brand’s appeal to the consumers mind or logic.

- **Emotional benefits**, on the other hand, are the brand’s appeal to the consumers’ emotions, as the term implies.

The **brand proposition** is a summary of the rational and emotional benefits. It should contain the target consumers, benefits, desired action and criteria for that brand and those benefits.

The **brand personality** refers to chosen character that best conveys the brand proposition to the target audience (Ellwood 2002: 125).

**BUILDING A BRAND**

Van Dyk and Herholdt (2004: 41–42) suggest the following guidelines for building a brand. They are listed below with a brief description of how they apply to employer brands.

- **Start with a quality product**: It is not possible for an organisation to build an employer brand if they do not have quality people-management policies, procedures, practices and processes.

- **Own a word or phrase**: A word or phrase combined with the corporate brand will link the message which employers want to convey regarding their favourable employment proposition.

- **Tap into emotion**: The promise contained in the employment proposition should use the target audience’s psychology to evoke an emotional response.

- **Build the image**: This is done verbally, visually and through actions. The focus here is to communicate the value of employment with the organisation.

- **Market the image**: The unique employment conditions should be part of the organisation’s culture. It should be communicated within the organisation and to the external audience.

- **Live the message**: Organisations have to be committed to following best people management practice. Employees will not otherwise be motivated to advocate and support the employer brand – in other words, “live the message”.


Backhaus and Tikoo (2004: 505) suggested the following employer branding framework. It is interesting to note the interaction suggested between the corporate culture and the employer brand. One could argue, considering the above models for understanding a brand and how they are related to people management, that there is a similar interaction between the organisation identity and employer branding.

A SOUTH AFRICAN EXAMPLE OF EXTERNAL VALIDATION OF EMPLOYER OF CHOICE STATUS

In South Africa, the annual Best Company to Work For survey conducted by the Financial Mail and Deloitte & Touche Human Capital Corporation is an opportunity for companies to measure themselves in terms of their attractiveness as an employer or, otherwise stated, their position as an employer of choice. The survey is suggested as a measure of both standing as an employer of choice (Solecki 2003: 5) and the eventual success of the employer brand (Van Dyk & Herholdt 2004: 59) to attract talent. It seems, therefore, that once the employer-of-choice status of a company is measured externally and the results published, it becomes attached to the employer brand.

The methodology used in the Best Company to Work For survey is to provide three different questionnaires to employees, employers and “the market” (Solecki 2003: 9). The results are weighted according to the following ratio: employees 75%, employers 15%, “the market” 10% (Furlonger 2002: 22). Company size is taken into account to determine the sample size for the survey, and random sampling techniques are used (Van Dyk & Herholdt 2004: 65).

Results of the survey are published for overall standing as well as for categories, which in many cases may be more useful since employees with particular qualifications, skills and experience will look for employment in a particular industry which offers the type of employment they seek.

LEVERAGING AN EMPLOYER BRAND

An employer of choice is an organisation which top talent aspires to work for as a result of its reputation and employer brand message, both of which are tailored to appeal to the target audience (Sutherland et al. 2002: 14)

Job candidates have to be approached much like customers, carefully identified and targeted, attracted the company and its brand and then sold on the job (Capelli 2001: 140).

Apart from recruitment advertisements, the most commonly used method is the company’s website. Since corporate home pages are frequently the first place where job seekers look, they should be designed in order to encourage applications (Capelli 2001: 140). According to Jarzebowski (2003a: 21), research by Ilogos shows that 91% of Global 500 companies use their websites for recruitment.

Online recruiting is, however, a two-edged sword. While it is possible to attract top talent through online recruiting, employees may also be lost to other companies in the same way. Another issue that has to be considered is the risk of discrimination through online recruiting (Capelli 2001: 143,144). Employment or appointment criteria, online or otherwise, need to take issues such as employment equity and affirmative action into account. Companies could therefore work together with their recruitment suppliers to develop well-rounded recruitment strategies (Jarzebowski 2003a: 21).

Recruiting efforts should be integrated into overall marketing efforts. Immediately recognisable (HR) brands can be built by tying product ads to recruiting ads through the use of similar formats, colours and styles (Capelli 2001: 140).

CONCLUSION

Having investigated the concepts of employer of choice and employer branding, it seems they can and have been effectively combined. In fact, Sutherland et al. (2002: 13) refer to the term “employer-of-choice branding”, which indicates a synthesis of the two concepts.
As referred to earlier, the fact that employer branding uses aspects of corporate identity and reputation specifically to achieve the multiple objectives of HR management (Sutherland et al. 2002: 14) and that to be or to become an employer of choice requires a concerted effort of all the relevant people in the organisation. (Bothma 2004: 16) has to be kept in mind.

Also, considering the first step mentioned above in the process of building a brand, i.e. to start with a quality product, as well as what an employer brand represents, it does seem as if a prerequisite for building an employer brand is to strive for employer-of-choice status. In this regard, an organisation has a great deal of work to do to ensure that its people management strategies and practices are aligned with the goal of becoming an employer of choice.

Therefore one could conclude that although the two concepts are almost intertwined, there is an order in which they must be implemented, i.e. first an internal focus ensuring that the employment offer contains the elements necessary to achieve employer-of-choice status, and secondly to build and leverage an employer brand.

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LEADERSHIP CRISIS IN AFRICA: CONTEXTUALISING AFRICAN LEADERS’ OBSESSION WITH POWER

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ABSTRACT
After many years of struggle, the African masses obtained political independence from their colonial masters. This brought optimism about the future of the African continent, but once the African leadership tasted power they soon discovered why their predecessors were reluctant to relinquish it. They did all they could to remain in office. A few years later, the new crop of African leaders vowed to stop this practice but ended up doing the same thing once they ascended to power. This article contextualises African obsession with power by discussing both exogenous and endogenous factors that have sustained this undesirable practice to date.

INTRODUCTION
Pre-colonial African states such as Ghana, Mali, Songhai, Great Zimbabwe and Buganda thrived before the advent of colonialism (Njoh 2006; Hanson 2003; Young 2001; Hull 1976; Reader 1997). The end of colonial rule during the 1960s and 1970s brought optimism that the African masses would regain their dignity. As the Western flags were lowered and replaced with national flags, the optimists were vindicated that indeed Africa was on a new course. Sadly, not long thereafter the new incumbent presidents became obsessed with power. Instead of dismantling colonial institutions and practices, they protected and consolidated them for their own egotistic ends.

Initially, the African masses were tolerant of these practices and rejoiced that their black leaders – most of whom had fought relentlessly against colonial rule – were now enjoying the luxury previously perceived to be the prerogative of white masters. In their view, this was a deserved reward. However, as these black leaders settled in their new positions, they did not dream of ever relinquishing power to anyone else, both black and white. This was a huge disappointment to the masses who had supported them all along. As the latter mobilised to oust their once-revered leaders, the incumbents became ruthless and made indefatigable attempts to remain in office. This cast a pall on the African continent. The introduction of one-party states, the promotion of ethnicity and nepotism – coupled with maladministration and inexperience – triggered more political violence. In response, the incumbent leaders resorted to brute force to address the situation and consolidate their positions. The question is: why did African leaders become so obsessed with power?

The primary aim of the article is to address this question by providing the political context in which African leaders resolved rather to die in office than relinquish political power. The most worrisome factor is that this obsession with power continues despite attempts by the African Union (AU) and the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) to promote good governance in Africa by investing financial resources (ECA 2004, 2005). But the first and second generation of African leaders had different reasons for clinging to power. These are addressed separately below.

THE FIRST GENERATION OF AFRICAN LEADERS
The independence of the Gold Coast in 1957 marked a watershed in the history of the African continent. African leaders derived inspiration from this episode and pressed for their own political independence. Consequently, a number of African countries rid themselves of colonial rule in the
early to mid–1960s. In East Africa, Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) took a vanguard position in this regard by leading Tanganyika into self-rule in 1960 and full independence a year later. Uganda followed suit in 1962, and then Kenya and Zanzibar in 1963. Other countries like Angola and Mozambique gained their independence in the mid–1970s. Zimbabwe joined the party in 1980 under Robert Mugabe. The independence of these and many other African countries marked a new epoch in African history in that for the first time since the scramble for Africa began in 1885, Africans ruled fellow Africans.

But ‘presidents for life’ – possibly the most odious coinage of African independence – entrenched the rule of the newly elected presidents who competed with traditional rulers and treated them as colonial stooges and relics of a conservative past (Russell 1999; Cooper 2002). This view is premised on the fact that some of Africa’s first leaders who took over from colonial rulers set a wrong precedent by holding onto power as though they were monarchs. In 1958, Dr Hastings Kamuzu Banda returned to Malawi after spending 40 years abroad. He led the Nyasaland African Congress (NAC), which was banned in 1959 and Banda was imprisoned. When he came out of jail in 1960 he led the Malawi Congress Party (MCP) on whose ticket he became prime minister in 1964. With the adoption of the republican constitution in 1966, Banda became Malawi’s first black president and “in 1971 this was altered to president for life” (Wiseman 1991: 25). President Banda ensured that most of the government portfolios were entrusted to him. Even when he became too old to rule, he still refused to relinquish power. This set a wrong precedent, hence the conclusion that Banda was “Africa’s first but sadly not last president for life” (Russell 1999: 41). Other African leaders continue to replicate this abhorrent practice.

The fact that the leaders who emerged as presidents had been leaders of the liberation struggle against colonial rule came with two sets of problems. Firstly, those who had been with them in the bush envied their success and became critical of how they were running the newly independent countries. At times they did not even give them the respect they deserved as heads of state. Secondly, some of the masses revered their new leaders and tolerated their actions. For them, it was justifiable that these first presidents should remain in power for much longer because after all they were the ones who had led the struggle to oust colonial administrators and therefore had to be rewarded for their efforts. It was in this context that Kenyans referred to their first president, Jomo Kenyatta, as Baba wa Taifa (a Kiswahili phrase meaning “Father of the Nation”) (Archer 1969: 131). Each of these scenarios is expounded below.

**OPPOSITION TO THE INCUMBENT PRESIDENT**

It is a truism that when African leaders embarked upon the liberation struggle against colonial rule they did not agree on the strategies they would use to accelerate the pace of getting rid of the colonialists (Sowetan 2007). Consequently, there was more than one liberation movement in each country. For example, Kenya once had the Kenya African National Union (KANU) dominated by the Kikuyu ethnic group, and the Kenya African Democratic Union (KADU), which drew support mainly from other ethnic groups. Mozambique had the Mozambique National Resistance Movement (RENAMO) and Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO), while Zimbabwe had the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) and the Zimbabwe African People’s Union (ZAPU). In South Africa, although the African National Congress (ANC) had remained the only liberation movement since 1912, in 1959 the Pan Africanist Congress (PAC) was formed by a group of disgruntled ANC members who had divergent views from the party’s majority on the inclusion of non-blacks in the liberation movement.

When independence was achieved in many of these African countries, leaders of various liberation movements saw themselves as the custodians of the newly independent states. Those who failed to realise this dream made life difficult for the new incumbents. On many occasions the latter returned to the bush and started waging a new war against their former comrades-in-arms.
This culminated in a number of the first coups in countries such as Zaire or Congo Republic (1961 and 1965), Ghana (1966) and Nigeria (1966). There were also failed coups in countries like Tanzania (1964) and, about two decades later, in Kenya (1982) and in Zambia (1988). Even in South Africa where democracy only came in 1994, inter- and intra-party conflicts claimed the lives of thousands of people in what was commonly dubbed “black-on-black violence”. When the ANC-led Government of National Unity (GNU) was formed, conservative Afrikaners formed the Boeremag and planned to topple the government.

Other African countries witnessed prolonged civil wars. This was the case in Angola where Jonas Savimbi, leader of the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) dedicated his whole life to the fight against the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA) until his death on 22 February 2002. Mozambique and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) went through a similar experience and the results were disastrous. In Zimbabwe, Joshua Nkomo challenged Mugabe. The fall-out between the two resulted in the ruthless killing of about 20 000 people from Matabeleland (Nkomo’s support base) by a predominantly Shona military force. The senate of Edinburgh University recently revoked an honorary degree awarded by the university to Mugabe in 1984, arguing that it was not aware of these atrocities committed by his army when it conferred the degree on him (Pretoria News 2007b).

To a large extent, all these developments unwittingly contributed to the “president for life” phenomenon. Incumbent presidents devised ways and means of consolidating their positions. On the one hand they became more dictatorial and crushed any opposition ruthlessly. This was the case in the Congo where Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba was brutally assassinated in 1961 simply because he was a critic of the incumbent president, Joseph Kasavubu. In Uganda, when Milton Obote felt that his position was under threat from the Kabaka of Buganda, he waged war against him in 1966. The latter claimed the autonomy of his kingdom, arguing that it was legitimised by the Buganda Agreement of 1900, which he signed with the British (Low 1971). Idi Amin Dada was even more ruthless when he took over power after ousting President Obote in 1971. By the time he left office following a successful invasion from Tanzania in 1979, he had killed about 300 000 people (Wiseman 1991: 5). Idi Amin had a habit of awarding himself preposterous and pompous titles, such that he was viewed as “a figure of fun abroad” (Wiseman 2004: 14). However, there was nothing amusing about his rule for the people of Uganda. In fact, he will go down in history as “one of the most vilified mass murderers of the twentieth century” (Bater 2005: 8).

Some of these leaders went for a softer option in their bid to remain in power. They declared their countries one-party states to prevent political opposition. This was a subtle form of defusing the opposition in order to prolong their stay in office. As discussed later in this article, KANU remained the only party in Kenya for several years before multiparty democracy was adopted in 1992. Even the most popular African leaders once toyed with this idea and in fact implemented it. In 1965 President Nyerere made TANU the only party in Tanzania. Zambian president Kenneth Kaunda declared the United National Independence Party (UNIP) the only permitted party in 1972. Sometimes these actions instigated even more violent reaction from the belligerents, as was the case in Kenya. All these tactics were geared primarily towards entrenching the position of the incumbent president who felt threatened by the opposition but was not ready to hand over power to the new claimants.

Looking at things from this vantage point, one can confidently conclude that the reason why the incumbent presidents wanted to remain in office forever was that they had a stern belief that the offices they occupied were a reward for their successful struggle to free their nations from colonial oppression. They were determined to enjoy what their white predecessors had enjoyed for decades while they were still in the bush. It was in this context that when they assumed power they imported expensive cars, clothes, furniture and food to match their elevated social status (Cooper...
2002; Mazrui 1986; Davidson 1984). By all accounts, it was not easy for them to relinquish power and live a normal life again, which is why they did all they could to remain in office for life. Driven by their own egotism, those with whom they had fought against the colonialists also wanted to reap these fruits of freedom. Unfortunately, those in power felt that the cake was too small to share and resolved to preserve their position at all costs.

**SUPPORT FOR THE INCUMBENT PRESIDENT**

Another reason why the first generation of African leaders remained in office almost indefinitely was because they enjoyed the support of the masses whom they had led to independence. It was due in part to this reason that a leader like President Kaunda was able to rule Zambia for almost three decades. As one author put it, “the Zambian leader was, however, one of the few genuinely likeable Big Men” (Russell 1999: 55). He was seen as “a popular democratic leader who was dedicated only to the uplifting of the Zambian people without undue concern for his own position” (Wiseman 2004:105). Although corruption flourished under President Kaunda’s rule, he remained untainted, thus consolidating his popularity with the masses. In East Africa, President Nyerere was perceived as a leader about whom it was difficult to have a harsh opinion. He was seen as “the most meaningful and significant leader ever produced in Africa” (Van Rensburg 1981: 392). In the case of Zimbabwe, during his early years in office Mugabe could do no wrong among his supporters. So, “when the first cases of corruption and incompetence came to light, they were excused: after all this was the man who had ended long years of white rule” (Russell 1999: 292–293). Although this changed later, Zimbabweans revered Mugabe and his administration during the early days of the country’s independence.

Sometimes African leaders were more skilful in their *modus operandi*. They delivered on certain promises and argued that the longer they remained in power the more they would be able to address other needs of the people they were leading. This made the masses believe that their leaders were driven by empathy and altruism to remain in office, not by political avarice. One author captured this meticulously cogitated tactic elegantly with regard to President Nyerere. He recalled: “At the time of Tanganyika’s independence in 1961, Nyerere used to say to friends, ‘if only I can have three years’, ‘if I can have just five years’” (Smith 1973: 201). Indeed, after returning from his voluntary resignation in 1961, President Nyerere remained in office from 1962 until 1985. Even during the 1965 elections after the merger of Tanganyika and Zanzibar in April 1964 to form Tanzania, he remained the most popular leader among his people. His popularity was such that “the party was not prepared to nominate anyone to oppose him, in all likelihood, no one would have chosen to run against him anyway” (Smith 1973: 151).

President Nyerere was enjoying the fruits of his labour. He had embarked upon the struggle to free his people when he returned from pursuing his studies in Europe. In 1955 he appeared before the United Nations. It was the first time an African had been sent by a territorial political organisation, in this case TANU, to represent his people’s hopes to the UN (Melady 1961: 67). It was in this context that when he passed away in 1999 some commentators stated that his death deprived independent Africa of one of its most intelligent, perceptive and determinedly radical leaders. He was “an inspiration not just to Africans but also to people all over the world” (*New Internationalist* 1999). Despite the failure of his socio-economic policies like *ujamaa*, President Nyerere remained one of the most popular African leaders even after his death.

It follows from this discussion that some African leaders did not necessarily force themselves onto the people they were leading. Instead, they were loved by them and were perceived as messiahs. A similar situation occurred in Swaziland where the monarch, King Sobhuza II ruled the tiny kingdom from 1968 until his death in 1982. The entrenchment of democracy was not an issue in Swaziland. With a few exceptions, people generally accepted that it was preordained who their leader would be and therefore they did not mind being ruled by him indefinitely as per custom.
That is why it is still so hard to promote democracy in Swaziland even today. But presidents, unlike monarchs, cannot remain in office forever because their positions are created by democratic principles, not their birth into primordial families.

In short, the first generation of African leaders remained in office mainly for two reasons: (i) they used force to remain in power; (ii) they derived support from the people they were leading. In both instances they were either perceived, or perceived themselves, as the right people to lead their countries because they had been at the vanguard of the liberation struggle for many years.

THE SECOND GENERATION OF AFRICAN LEADERS

The reasons prompting the second generation of African leaders to want to remain presidents for life are slightly different from the ones discussed above. These reasons could be summarised as follows: (i) they took over from the first generation of leaders under false pretences, promising to use their position of power to instill democracy in their respective countries; (ii) once in office, they created enemies and also indulged in corrupt practices but soon realised that they were protected from any possible prosecution by the office they occupied. In both instances they resolved to remain presidents for life or until they were too old to be subjected to prosecution by their successors. As shall be seen below, in Malawi, President Banda avoided retribution, claiming that he was too ill to stand trial or act as a witness. This strategy worked. President Bakili Muluzi intervened, ruling that all cases against Banda should be dropped (Rake 2001: 154). The same happened with Frederick Chiluba in Zambia. He failed to attend court sessions due to acute cardiac complications that kept him out of the public eye, but he was not acquitted (The Citizen 2007a; Star 2007).

Where the aforementioned strategy failed, out-going presidents resorted to hand-picking and anointing successors who would be indebted to them and thus shield them from any public outrage. On many occasions this move revived ethnic as well as inter- and intra-party divisions. But not all African leaders were successful in this regard either. Examples from five African countries will illustrate these two interrelated strategies.

MALAWI

President Hastings Kamuzu Banda, Malawi’s first-generation leader, came to power in 1964 and ruled Malawi for the next 30 years. He was defeated only by President Bakili Muluzi in a democratic election that was held in 1994. Having scored 1.4 million votes against Banda’s 996 363, Muluzi assumed office in May 2004. Muluzi came to power under false pretences. Before the elections he promised to completely sweep away the legacy of Banda’s dictatorship and inculcate a democratic ethos that would take the country forward. Initially he seemed to be doing just that when he closed three prisons notorious for torture during Banda’s reign. He also resolved to investigate Banda’s business deals and went on to set up a commission to investigate the deaths of four prominent politicians in a suspicious car accident in 1983. When the commission reported in 1995, implicating Banda in these deaths, Muluzi put him under house arrest. However, as mentioned earlier, he later ruled that all charges brought against Banda be dropped on account of his old age. This ruling came as a relief to the ailing former president.

Through these activities, President Muluzi tried to convince the electorate that he was determined to put Malawi on a new path. However, as early as 1995, Muluzi was being accused of redirecting funds meant for poverty alleviation to the accounts of individuals in his political party, the United Democratic Front (UDF). This allegation dented his political image and had long-term negative consequences. In fact, Muluzi almost lost the second democratic elections held in 1999 because he was no longer popular among the electorate. After his victory, the majority of Malawians who were not happy with his victory looked forward to the end of his second and last term in office.
But President Muluzi’s loss of popularity left him convinced that he would be hunted down and prosecuted as soon as he left office. To prevent any form of retribution, he started devising survival strategies. The first was to lobby support for the change of the national constitution that would allow him to run for the presidency for the third time. Unfortunately, he had already lost his popularity, thus his strategy failed when he tabled it for discussion in parliament. This did not go down well with him because he had already dubbed himself the “political engineer” (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/3740547.stm). The failure of his meticulously devised strategy showed that he had lost his influence. The fact that he had tried to alter the national constitution in order to satisfy his personal political ambitions portrayed him as a power monger, not a patriot.

Muluzi reverted to plan B. He named Bingu Wa Mutharika as his preferred successor and told Malawians that he was the “economic engineer” (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/3740547.stm; http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bingu_wa_Mutharika). He premised this label on the fact that Bingu Wa Mutharika had obtained a PhD in economics from the US. Muluzi worked on the assumption that if he groomed his protégé and campaigned for him, the latter would be indebted to him and then protect him from prosecution once he left office. This seemed plausible. President Muluzi and President Sam Nujoma of Namibia had saved Bingu Wa Mutharika from possible imprisonment when he was accused of mismanaging funds belonging to Common Market of Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA).

Indeed, Bingu Wa Mutharika won the elections and assumed office on 24 May 2004. Muluzi thought that his plan had worked and that he would now be free from any prosecution for the crimes he had committed while in office. Little did he know that his protégé would turn against him soon after officially assuming power. Muluzi had been accused of maladministration and embezzlement of state funds. He therefore knew that since he and his successor had fallen out, the latter would prosecute him. This vindicated those leaders who feared that life would be tough for them once they left office.

KENYA

When Daniel arap Moi was appointed Kenya’s vice-president in 1967, he was not seen as a threat by either the Luo or Kikuyu powerbrokers. They regarded him as a useful compromise candidate. The death of President Kenyatta on 23 August 1978 paved the way for Moi to lead Kenya, as in the national constitution it is stipulated that should a president die his deputy would take over until elections were organised. The Kikuyu “broadly welcomed his succession to the presidency assuming he would be a pliant leader who would do their bidding” (Russell 1999: 72). Moi’s ascendance to the presidency marked the beginning of the nyayo (Kiswahili word for “footsteps”) period. Moi pledged to sustain President Kenyatta’s policies, thus confirming that he was the right choice. He was tactful. He took a conscious decision to lie low during the first two to three years in office while getting his grip on power. Moi continued to govern the country with virtually the same team he had inherited from President Kenyatta. His minor cabinet reshuffle did not reflect any new direction (Van Rensburg 1981: 173). He retained Charles Njonjo, an influential Kikuyu, in his cabinet, and also appointed Mwai Kibaki, another Kikuyu, as his vice-president. By all accounts, Kenya was experiencing a smooth political transition that was unprecedented.

It was a foregone conclusion that this smooth transition would not last. Moi was a Kalenjin. The fact that Kenyan politics had been organised around ethnicity since independence meant that ethnic politics would soon take center stage. The Kikuyu had benefited from President Kenyatta’s rule (1963–1978). Despite Jaramogi Oginga Odinga being President Kenyatta’s vice-president, his Luo ethnic group did not benefit because there was a schism between the two leaders and, by extension, between the Luo and the Kikuyu. One of the causal factors of this schism was the fact that Odinga had communist inclinations while President Kenyatta was more sympathetic to the West and its capitalist mentality. Therefore, despite the optimism about the political transition, the potential for ethnic animosity was ever present.
Once Moi had a grip on his new position, he demonstrated that it was the turn of the Kalenjin to be the beneficiaries. He gradually put his plan on course by replacing the Kikuyu with his trusted tribesmen. But it was the air force’s attempted coup in 1982 that instigated Moi to act ruthlessly against anyone who seemed to threaten his position. He subsequently surrounded himself with only those he trusted. In 1983 he pushed away Charles Njonjo, who was his attorney-general, and followed with many other Kikuyu. By the early 1990s, “Moi was ringed by a coterie of Kalenjins, many of whom were country peasants trying to get in on every deal, the bigger the better, even when they had no idea of commerce” (Russell 1999: 73). Among Moi’s many confidantes were Nicholas Biwott and Mark Too – both of whom were Kalenjin. The majority of Moi’s target enemies were mainly from other ethnic groups. They included Dr Robert Ouko, a prominent and most vocal Luo minister of foreign affairs who died under mysterious circumstances in 1990 following a violent quarrel with Moi (Rake 2001; Cohen & Odhiambo 2004). The list of political activists who were tortured by Moi’s security agents at Nyayo House in central Nairobi and other places around the country during his 24-year reign of terror included Raila Odinga, son of Oginga Odinga (now Kenya’s prime minister).

Moi was elected into office for the third term in 1988. To ensure that he remained president for life, he resisted multiparty democracy. Moi knew that he had created enemies and could only be safe as long as he remained president. But as local and international pressure mounted, KANU eventually succumbed and amended the national constitution to allow a multiparty democracy. Moi won both the 1992 and 1997 general elections amid cries that they were rigged.

When the time came for Moi to leave office after finishing his two terms as a democratically elected leader, he remembered the crimes he had committed while in office. His first attempt was to try to change the national constitution so that it would allow him to run for the presidency for the third time. However, opposition parties, most of which were organised along ethnic lines, vowed to scuttle this plan. They could not tolerate seeing Moi remaining president for life because that would have prolonged their suffering.

Realising that his first plan had failed, Moi implemented his plan B. He tactfully hand-picked Uhuru Kenyatta, the son of President Kenyatta, as his preferred candidate. Moi knew that if this plan succeeded, the young Kenyatta would protect him against the Kikuyu he had persecuted for many years and against all other ethnic groups that had suffered during his reign. Such a move caused pandemonium within KANU, which had been the ruling party since independence. When it became clear that Moi was not going to change his mind, 14 opposition parties formed the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC). They also tactfully elected Mwai Kibaki as a consensus candidate to split the Kikuyu vote; a candidate from any other ethnic group would have been unable to win against Uhuru Kenyatta. It was this strategy that saw the latter losing his bid to become president. NARC registered a landslide victory, forcing Uhuru Kenyatta to concede defeat even before the tallying of votes was completed. His defeat meant that Moi would leave office uncertain about his future. Like Banda of Malawi, he counted on his age to protect him, but the opposition parties were not keen on prosecuting him – getting him out of office was their main priority. NARC’s supporters even modified a Christian song to say: *Yote ya wezekana bila Moi* (Everything is possible without Moi).

What is evident from this case study is that after failing to remain in office, Moi played ethnic politics by using Uhuru Kenyatta. It is further buttressed by the fact that on the eve of the elections Moi appointed Musalia Mudavathi, a Luhya, as his vice-president to win the support of the latter’s ethnic group. Mudavathi did not sit in a single parliamentary session because KANU lost the 2002 elections. In fact, Mudavathi did not even win a seat in his own constituency. Therefore Moi tried in vain to remain in power and to install a president who would protect him. He had been in politics long before independence and “learned all too well from Kenyatta’s heavy-handed and
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venal ways” (Russell 1999: 78). He drew from this experience when he entrenched his position. But at least Moi was lucky because President Kibaki failed to unite his coalition.

NIGERIA

Nigeria has a long history of military rule. In 1960, Sir Abubakar Tafawa Balewa became the country’s first black prime minister. He retained this position in 1963 when Dr Nnamdi Azikiwe from the eastern part of the country became the ceremonial president. But in January 1966 Nigeria experienced its first military coup, carried out by mainly Igbo officers. This brought General John Aguiyi Ironsi to power. However, the latter did not even finish a year. In July 1966, Northern and Middle Belt military officers carried out a countercoup, and Lieutenant Colonel Yakubu Gowon replaced Ironsi. Other military rulers such generals Buhari (1983–1985), Babangida (1985–1993), Abacha (1993–1998) and Abdusalam (1998–1999) sustained the abominable culture of military rule in Nigeria. Olusegun Obasanjo had ruled Nigeria as a military ruler between 1976 and 1979. In 1999 he emerged as the democratically elected president, a position he retained during the 2003 general elections (Crisis Group Africa Report 2006: 32–33; Bola & Akinterinwa 2005; Garba 1987; Udogu 2005; Falola 2005).

The case of Obasanjo is another clear example of how some African leaders are obsessed with power. He had already led Nigeria as a military ruler from 1976 until October 1979, when he handed power over to Shehu Shagari, and for two terms as a democratically elected president. However, in 2005, when he realised that his last term in office was about to come to an end, he started lobbying for support within the People’s Democratic Party (PDP) in his bid to change the national constitution so that he could run for the presidency for the third time. Two questions emerge: (i) What is it that President Obasanjo still wanted to achieve which he was unable to achieve during his two terms in office as a democratically elected president and during his term as a military ruler? (ii) Was his decision propelled by national interest or by his political greed and fear of what would happen to him once he left office? These are intriguing questions. A true patriot would leave office and still make himself available to his successor should the latter need his advice on specific national issues. Therefore, one does not have to cling on to power forever in order to be able to contribute to the country’s development. Former President Nelson Mandela of South Africa has demonstrated that this is not insurmountable.

When the National Assembly scuttled Obasanjo’s third-term plan by refusing to amend the national constitution, he took his anger out on all those who opposed him, more especially on state governors and other individuals who wanted to run for different political positions during the 2007 general elections. He used the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) to impose a reign of terror. But his main victim was Vice-President Atiku Abubakar whom he frustrated up to the last minute. Had it not been for the Nigerian Supreme Court, Abubakar would have not been allowed to run for the elections at all. This is how vindictive some African leaders can be if things do not go their way.

Seeing that his initial plan had failed, Obasanjo, like Moi and Muluzi, started planning for his exit. He prepared for his soft landing by naming the less popular governor of Katsina State, Alhaji Umaru Musa Yar’adua as his successor. This shocked many Nigerians inside and outside the country. Obasanjo then successfully lobbied for the change of the PDP constitution in December 2006 to make him an automatic chairman of the party’s influential Board of Trustees (BoT). This decision was premised on the understanding that the BoT has great influence on the functioning of the government. Therefore, the declaration of Yar’adua as the winner of the 2007 presidential elections was a huge boost to Obasanjo’s political ambitions. Armed with his position as chairman of the BoT and assured of his continued influence in government, Obasanjo used all relevant state institutions to ensure that the inauguration of Yar’adua as the country’s next president took place on 29 May 2007 despite protests by opposition parties and trade unions. When he left for his home
state (Ogun) on 30 May 2007, former President Obasanjo was satisfied with what he had been able to achieve. Although he was not the president anymore, he still retained political power, therefore he remains one of those African leaders who, despite their achievements while in office, have tainted the image of the African continent by trying to be presidents for life.

ZAMBIA
Zambia is one of the African countries that achieved independence during the first wave in the 1960s. As discussed earlier, Kaunda became the first president when the country achieved independence in 1964. After spending more than 20 years in office, Kaunda found himself under pressure to relinquish power. One of the strategies Frederick Chiluba, a trade unionist, used to come to power was to put Kaunda’s national identity into question, saying that he was not a Zambian because both his parents were from Malawi. This was meant to discredit Kaunda and dissuade some of the electorate from supporting him. The other strategy was to remind Zambians that Kaunda had been in office for almost three decades and that he had to give other Zambians a chance to lead the nation. Chiluba “saw himself as the first in a new breed of African leaders and was determined to prove to the world that Africans really were starting to take responsibility for their own affairs” (Russell 1999: 56). He worked studiously, was careful with his diction and promised Zambians a better life under his presidency. With those promises, he won the elections in 1991.

What is important for this discussion is not the fact that Chiluba defeated Kaunda in a general election. Instead, it is the fact that in spite of his pre-election promises, after serving his two terms in office, Chiluba was so obsessed with power that he did not want to leave office in 2001. Like his three counterparts discussed above, he started lobbying to change the national constitution so that he could run for the presidency for the third time and thus prolong his stay in office. This was an irony. The very person who vowed to open a new page in African politics was now carving a plan to remain president beyond his constitutional mandate. What he failed to realise was the fact that he had told the electorate before assuming office in 1991 that it was wrong for a leader to remain as president indefinitely. Therefore, Zambians – including members of his own party – could not agree with his plan to change the national constitution to advance an egotistic political agenda. Thus, Chiluba’s plan was thwarted.

Realising that his exit from office was inevitable, Chiluba started planning to ease himself out. He put his weight behind Levy Mwanawasa and presented him as the right person to take the country forward. Little did he know that by the time he took this decision his political image had already been tainted. The Zambian masses had negative perceptions about him, seeing him as treacherous and cunning. He had made the electorate believe that he had ousted Kaunda because he had the interests of the country at heart. He had also pleaded with the electorate to give him a chance to demonstrate what good leadership meant. After getting this mandate, he allowed his egotism to prevail over his unionism and nationalism.

The victory of Levy Mwanawasa, therefore, was not a guarantee that Chiluba would not be indicted for the crimes he committed while in office. Although Mwanawasa had been backed by Chiluba, he was determined to prosecute him for two reasons: first, to give him an opportunity to clear his name if it were true that he did not commit the economic crimes he was accused of; and second, to set a precedent and demonstrate to Zambians that his administration would fight corruption with vigour regardless of who was involved in it. This is the context in which Mwanawasa indicted Chiluba.

On 4 May 2007, the High Court in London found Chiluba guilty of stealing £23 million (more than R315 million) of public funds in a civil case brought on behalf of the Zambian attorney-general. Chiluba had deposited the money in overseas accounts using London-based law firms. The fact that he had once served as a trade union leader and therefore understood the plight
of the working class did not bother him. According to Justice Peter Smith, Chiluba earned $100,000 (about R700,000) between 1991 and 2001 when he was in power but was able to pay an exclusive boutique in Switzerland $1.2 million. He also had a global reputation as a smart and expensive dresser, wearing monogrammed shirts and suits as well as specially made shoes with high heels (Pretoria News 2007a; City Press 2007). The judge continued to say that Chiluba stole public funds at a time when the majority of Zambians were struggling to live on one dollar per day and thousands of people could not afford more than one meal a day. When the judge ordered Chiluba to personally return $41 million of the $46 million siphoned from the Zambian treasury during his ten-year rule, he said that the order “bordered on racism” (Business Day 2007). Such a defence mechanism did nothing to protect Chiluba and Africa’s image.

ZIMBABWE
Zimbabwe’s case is fascinating. President Mugabe belongs to the first generation of African leaders but is also the country’s current leader. Zimbabwe gained independence in 1980 and more than 27 years later, Mugabe is still the president. What is even more puzzling is the fact that having been in office for this long he is still refusing to leave office and to give a chance to the younger generation to lead the country.

The question becomes: At his age (84), what is it that President Mugabe still wants to achieve which he could not achieve after close to 30 years in office? The economy is plummeting; food prices and other commodities rise daily; the percentage of the people who are unemployed is increasing drastically; more and more Zimbabweans are leaving the country to look for a better life elsewhere, more especially in South Africa (Pretoria News 2007c; Beeld 2007; The Citizen 2007c). In short, Zimbabwe’s image and that of Africa is dented. With all these negative things happening around him one would expect the president to willingly relinquish power and enjoy the remainder of his life in peace. However, this is not the case. Instead, he resolved to contest the 2008 elections (The Citizen 2007b). When he lost to Morgan Tsvangirai in the first round, he used state institutions to make it impossible for Tsvangirai to participate in the run-off elections. He then competed with himself.

Why is Mugabe refusing to leave office? There are two possible explanations. First, in his many years in office, Mugabe has created many enemies for himself, especially from the opposition party, the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC). He knows that should a leader like Tsvangirai become president, he would be prosecuted for all the crimes he committed while in office. As long as he remains in power this possibility does not exist. Linked to this reason is the fact that the president is now old and therefore hopes that if he leaves office in his early 90s even his political enemies would not be keen to prosecute him. This would guarantee his safety.

Second, Mugabe strongly believes that he has unfinished business with the West, especially Britain and America. He wants to prove to them that they are dispensable. It is in this context that he is approaching China for both financial and material support as the West calls for more sanctions against him and his close confidantes. Unlike the other presidents discussed thus far, Mugabe does not seem to have identified the most suitable person to carry on with this assignment when he leaves office and he uses this as an excuse to remain in office. In the last two elections he used Zimbabwe’s relations with Britain to woo the electorate. He made them believe that he is the only African leader who does not bow to the West, thus portraying himself as a hero like Idi Amin in Uganda during the 1970s. For these reasons, Mugabe continues to use force against those who call for his resignation while also using money to buy the loyalty of those who keep him in power (including soldiers and the police). He enjoys playing a political game with his local and international foes while his country plunges deeper into an economic crisis.

THE IMPACT
The decision by African leaders to cling to power has serious implications that go beyond national boundaries. During elections, rigging becomes rampant to ensure that the incumbent president or
his chosen candidate wins. This leads to political violence and revives ethnic or regional divisions. The alignment of the electorate with the incumbent and his cohorts or with the opposition leads to what Mamdani calls the bifurcation of the state (Mamdani 1996). This inevitably slows down development. The international community usually frowns over such events and the country loses potential international allies, some of whom have financial resources that could assist in Africa’s development. International Financial Institutions (IFIs) such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) refuse to provide funds to countries whose leaders want to remain in power for life. Failure to access international donor countries and agencies by the presidents who emerge from undemocratically conducted elections sustains both poverty and unemployment on the African continent.

Another inevitable consequence of these unpopular practices is that financial resources earmarked for development are rerouted to state security agents to buy their support. Other funds go into the pockets of individuals in the ruling parties. This has been the case in Zimbabwe. In other countries, where such resources are not used in this manner, they are directed to specific ethnic groups believed to be the source of power. This was the case in Kenya, first with the Kikuyu and later with the Kalenjin.

A number of African leaders who are obsessed with power promote people who are incapable of running state institutions. Presidents Mobutu Sese Seko of the former Zaire and Idi Amin of Uganda were some of the culprits. In the latter case, the negative effect was the drastic decline in the country’s economy. Scholars argue that Uganda’s economy has never fully recovered from the wounds inflicted by Idi Amin (Allen 2004; Barter 2005). Zimbabwe is following the same path. Unfortunately, it is becoming fashionable in Africa for politicians to hold on to power forever and use flimsy reasons to justify their actions. The overall impact of this pandemic is that the African continent is developing at a much slower pace than it should, especially given the wealth of natural resources found in each country. But Africans cannot whine and cry indefinitely.

ADDRESSING THE PROBLEM

The question arises: How can Africa get out of this predicament? The answer lies on Africans themselves. The view that there must be African solutions to African problems is the right one. Firstly, individual leaders need to think beyond satisfying their personal needs – either by settling political scores or accumulating financial resources. Secondly, African leaders in general need to check on one another. The inauguration of the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) is a move in the right direction. While it cannot be repudiated that African leaders need to protect one another against any form of bullying from the West, it is equally important to guard against supporting anyone who is gambling with the lives of the African masses and the political image of the continent.

Failure by African institutions like the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the African Union (AU) and the Commonwealth to openly criticise President Mugabe’s violent methods of defusing the political situation in his country is totally unacceptable, and contradicts what African leaders espouse during the meetings of these institutions. The death of President Mwanawasa was a huge blow to the struggle to instill good governance in Africa. He was one of the few African leaders who were vocal about the Zimbabwean crisis. With an exception of President Kufour of Ghana, who openly raised concerns about the Zimbabwean crisis while he was the chair of the AU, African leaders have been somewhat indifferent. Interestingly, the failure of former President Thabo Mbeki’s “quiet diplomacy” on Zimbabwe did not deter SADC countries from giving him a mandate to mediate on the crisis. This was a controversial decision.

The national constitutions of many African states protect the incumbent president and other high-ranking officials from prosecution as long as they are still in office. While this was decided upon in good faith, it has had unintended consequences. As demonstrated in the cases used above,
some leaders commit crimes and then do everything possible to remain in office to avoid prosecution by their successors. The AU, the Pan African Parliament (PAP) and regional institutions like SADC, the East African Community (EAC) and the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) should take tough measures against leaders who bring the African continent into disrepute in order to satisfy their political avarice.

Another way out of this dilemma is through incentives. The current attempt by the AU to reward those former heads of state who promoted good governance during their term of office is a welcome move. National governments could support this initiative by giving such leaders good retirement packages. This would entice them to govern their countries properly and leave office as soon as their prescribed term ends so that they could enjoy the benefits away from the public eye. The AU could also play a role in this regard by creating positions in its secretariat for former heads of state or by sending some of them to UN structures to represent the AU or serve as envoys. To be sure, there is no guarantee that any of the mechanisms suggested here would totally eradicate the pandemic discussed in this article. However, each of them would go a long way towards reducing the number of cases where African leaders want to be president for life, ignoring the democratic principles on which the positions they occupy were created.

CONCLUSION

Two wrongs never make right. It was wrong for the colonialists to oppress the African masses, therefore African leaders were justified in embarking on the struggle to free their people from this situation. In the same vein, it is not right for African leaders to use force and other tactics to prolong their stay in office. By embracing democratic principles, Africans agreed to rule democratically and to respect the national constitutions of their countries. Any attempt by the incumbents to change the constitution in order to extend their mandate is dishonesty. It is a clear sign of political greed, which can no longer be tolerated in a democratic world.

The historical context presented above shows that the reasons behind the “president for life” phenomenon are different today from what they were in the 1960s, but the results are similar. Interestingly, when asked why the African continent is developing so slowly, African leaders invoke the mundane argument that it is because of the colonial legacy. No one could totally repudiate this fact but that argument is no longer tenable. Africans – both as individuals and institution – must put their house in order.

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CORRECTIONS STRATEGY: HISTORY OF SIGNIFICANT ISSUES IN THE CHANGE FROM THE REHABILITATIVE ERA TO THE PUNITIVE ERA

K Wolf*

ABSTRACT
The late 1970s saw the beginning of a change in penal philosophy in this country from a rehabilitative corrections model to a punitive model. In a law review article for the Georgetown Journal of Legal Ethics entitled, “Current development 2006–2007: Penal reform and the necessity for therapeutic jurisprudence”, Parker describes the difference between the two philosophies thus:

[T]he rehabilitative model was based on a perception of the criminal as sick and in need of treatment or rehabilitation. Because the theory looked to offenders’ need for treatment rather than to the character of their crimes, it allowed different sentences for similar offenses.

On the other hand, according to Parker,

the just-deserts [punitive] model is premised on the argument that criminal offenders are blameworthy because they are capable of choosing whether to commit a crime. This argument dates back to the Calvinist principle that punishment was not intended to save the criminal because humans were inherently sinful, and only God could save them.

Two to three decades later, it seems the pendulum is now beginning to swing in the opposite direction once again, raising questions about the impact of the punitive era on the corrections situation in this country. The purpose of this paper is to discuss some of the more significant corrections changes associated with the punitive era in order to begin to understand how they have contributed to a very different corrections landscape from the one they replaced.

INTRODUCTION
Given the complexity of the justice system in the US, with so many variables that one can analyse, it is necessary to simplify the picture in order to undertake a limited discussion of cause and effect over such a broad field. To this end, it is useful to contemplate two big changes that occurred during the punitive era – aggregate prisoner population and corrections costs – and contrast them with two relatively constant figures – recidivism and the percentage of prisoners who will return to society. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the US federal and state prison population rose by around 400% over the past 30 years, from around 300 000 in 1972 to over 1.5 million in 2005. The annual aggregate cost of corrections in this country has risen over 900%, from under $7 billion in 1980 to over $65 billion in 2005. Then, as now, over 95% of the prison population will rejoin society sooner or later. Around half of all prisoners released into society after finishing their terms wind up going back to prison within three years. This contrast provides a frame of reference from which to ask questions about the effects of the punitive era in an attempt to evaluate the relative strengths and weaknesses of such a penal approach.

Ultimately, all practical decisions regarding our penal system and the results they engender stem from our penal philosophy. In a general sense, this country’s system works by incarcerating people who, by disregarding the laws, threaten the health or financial security of law-abiding citizens. Incarceration has always intended to accomplish four goals: restraint – keeping prisoners at a safe distance; retribution – punishing people to the degree that they have hurt others; deterrence – serving to warn others of the consequences of disregarding the law; and finally rehabilitation – affording prisoners time to improve themselves so they can avoid breaking the law when their sentences are completed. Most people would agree to prison’s potential to deter and
restrain. Where there is great disagreement, however, is over the question of whether criminal
behaviour can be changed – if at all – by punishment or rehabilitation, and as to what mixture of
the two works best.

The rehabilitative era, which ended due to a general sense of disillusionment in the late 1970s,
was built around the broad view of crime as part of a larger social context. Its central premise is
that most people are inherently good, yet capable of bad judgement. Accordingly, although society
has an obligation to restrain criminal behaviour, it also must address the root causes of the
behaviour underlying imprisonment in an effort to reduce the precursors of crime, and hence crime
incidence. As a matter of policy, the rehabilitation strategy lies on the assumption that in order to
reduce crime, society needs to construct programmes to address variables such as poverty, alcohol
and drug abuse, lack of education, homelessness, and so forth. In this context it is all the more
important, according to the rehabilitation model, to make sure that prison time is spent in the most
effective way to enhance the likelihood of post-prison success. These efforts resulted in the
development of in-prison substance treatment programmes, re-entry strategies such as in-prison
job training, mental health services and educational programmes all geared toward reducing
recidivism and enhancing the chance that ex-prisoners might overcome the circumstances that led
to their incarceration upon their release.

The punitive ideology, on the other hand, takes a narrower view of criminals and their
behaviour, reducing crime to a matter of personal choice. Consistent with this view, those who
choose to break the law must be kept apart from those who obey – for the purpose of restraint,
deterrence of those who might be tempted to act similarly, and punishment of the offenders.
Naturally, the punitive ideology does not recognise the role or power of prisons to rehabilitate
offenders. As critics of the rehabilitative model, those in favour of a more punitive approach have
suggested that it is based on overly idealistic premises, that it encourages the coddling of
criminals, and that it wastes valuable tax money on ineffective programmes.

The demise of the rehabilitative era, which began in the late 1970s, was accelerated by the
spread of crack cocaine and a frightening rise in gang violence. Two legal changes marked the
onset of the punitive era in the early 1980s. The first of these developments was the “war on
drugs”, a reaction to the explosion of drug dealing, murder and social blight associated with the
 crack epidemic, which led to significantly higher incarceration rates and longer mandatory
sentences for crack cocaine possession and distribution. The other major change characterising the
punitive shift was actually a series of sentencing-law modifications that marked the gradual end of
sentencing discretion by judges and parole boards. According to information released by BJS in a
report entitled “Truth in sentencing in state prisons”, the following is a description of some of
these modifications. Previously, parole boards acting under a system of indeterminate sentencing
had used their authority to reward positive behaviour by reducing sentence lengths in order to
induce prisoners to make positive changes. While sometimes effective, indeterminate sentencing
was challenged on the grounds that prisoners would often serve less than half of their original
sentences. This system was replaced by a form of determinate sentencing which required
minimum-term lengths.

In addition to complaints that parole boards had too much power, there was a general outcry
against the fact that judges had too much discretion in sentence length, creating unfair disparity
among sentences of prisoners with similar offences. In reaction, the enactment of sentencing
guidelines made sentencing less arbitrary. Finally, beginning in 1984, the Truth in Sentencing laws
came into effect, eliminating sentence reduction for good behaviour and early release, thereby
ensuring that all prisoners would serve out their sentences.

While it is difficult to gauge the degree to which these changes acted as a deterrent, some
studies suggest that the inception of the sentencing reforms of the punitive era has in fact
significantly reduced crime. Leipold (2006: 542), in an article entitled “Recidivism, incapacita-
tion, and criminal sentencing policy” published in the University of St Thomas Law Journal, cites the study of Steven Leavitt, a University of Chicago Economics professor, “which shows that among the reasons for the declining crime rate of the 1990s, increased imprisonment was by far the most important one studied, accounting for 12% of the drop in violent crime and 8% of the decline in property crime”. Leavitt’s opinion, however, has been contradicted by numerous studies. In one article challenging such assumptions, entitled “Unlocking America”, Austin et al. (2007: 8) remark: “Most scientific evidence suggests that there is little if any relationship between fluctuations in crime rates and incarceration rates.” To defend the proposition, Austin et al. add:

A study of crime from 1980 to 1991 in all fifty states and the District of Columbia shows that incarceration rates exploded during that period. The states that increased incarceration rates the least were just as likely to experience decreases in crime as those that increased them the most.

Leipold (2006: 537) also points out some of the darker consequences of the higher imprisonment rate accompanying the punitive era. Noting the disproportionate number African Americans and Hispanics in the prison system relative to the general population, he suggests that “if incarceration rates remain unchanged, nearly 1 in 3 African American boys born in 2001 will go to prison at some point in his life, compared to 1 of every 17 white boys”. It can hardly be ignored that such a trend would have a strong impact on African American communities in this country outside of prison.

Beyond racial issues, in exploring reasons behind the large increase in prison population, Leipold (2006: 540) mentions a theory by Bernard Harcourt from a working research study which suggests that “the increase in imprisonment is offset by a decrease in the population of psychiatric hospitals”, an idea touching on the question of whether prison is the proper venue for the mentally ill. Adding to the discussion of mental illness in prison, Fellner (2006), in a paper published in the Harvard Civil Rights-Civil Liberties Law Review entitled “A corrections quandary: Mental illness and prison rules”, notes that “there are more than 200,000 – perhaps as many as 300,000 – men and women in U.S. jails and prisons suffering from mental disorders, including such serious illnesses as schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and major depression”. Fellner’s paper highlights the degree to which prisons, housing such a large number of the mentally ill are practically replacing psychiatric institutions, yet without offering them the benefit of professional treatment. Under such conditions, Fellner argues, prison officials often misinterpret mentally ill behaviour as rebellious or disrespectful, and thus react with punishment, potentially exacerbating the illness. She further suggests that use of prisons in such capacity without providing appropriate medical treatment should be seen as violating the 8th Amendment’s “cruel and unusual punishment” clause.

Apart from the aforementioned issues associated with the punitive era’s increased incarceration rate, there are major problems arising specifically due to prison overcrowding. Haney (2006), in a study entitled “The wages of prison overcrowding: Harmful psychological consequences and dysfunctional correctional reactions” published by the Washington University Journal of Law and Policy, details a litany of negative effects related to the overcrowding of prisons caused by the incarceration explosion. Haney sees these effects as an outgrowth of a correctional philosophy that saw deprivation as a goal rather than a problem. No longer judged by their ability to rehabilitate but rather, by their potential to punish, prison administrators felt little pressure to provide meaningful programming or activities for prisoners.

Haney’s study blames the era’s prison overcrowding with reducing or eliminating educational, vocational and psychological programmes that might later reduce recidivism in many prisoners, and replacing them with idle time. In addition to the lack of enhancement programmes, Haney remarks on the negative social effects of prison overcrowding, that “when prison environments become unduly painful they also become harmful, and prisoners carry the effects or consequences of that harm back into the ‘freeworld’ once they have been released”.

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More evidence tying prison overcrowding and budgetary strains to post-prison failures is cited by Heller (2006), in a note published by the Georgetown Journal on Poverty Law and Policy entitled “Poverty: The most challenging condition of prisoner release”. Heller’s article decries the decline of positive post-release programmes, noting that one successful programme was ended due to the fact that the “Board of Prisons did not believe that the staff time needed to monitor the project could be spared due to the current level of overcrowding”. More importantly, Heller raises the issue of poverty in its role in recidivism. Recognising the difficulty facing ex-prisoners in their quest to re-enter society, Heller details how their economic hardship is exacerbated by a nearly insurmountable collection of release rules and regulations, the violation of which leads to re-incarceration. Noting that over half of recidivism can be attributed to release violations, Heller argues that such rules result “in giving many offenders lifetime sentences of ‘invisible punishment’ even after individuals serve their time in prison”. Far from suggesting that ex-prisoners should be coddled, Heller points out that making release terms more manageable is good for the public since it reduces the cost of corrections by reducing recidivism, decreasing prison population and, hence, expense.

The overall picture painted by the studies cited above is bleak. The only positive aspect that comes to mind in consideration of the effects of the punitive era is that by warehousing so many people, the public is that much safer from the potential crimes the prisoners might commit while they are temporarily behind bars. Yet even that proposition is unlikely, given that the majority of prisoners in the US have either committed non-violent or other relatively low-impact crimes, or have violated the terms of their release (Austin et al. 2007: 25). On the other hand, the negative aspects speak for themselves. Thus it is fair to say that a penal system in which the main focus is retribution mainly produces retribution. It also carries very high economic and social costs. On the other hand, according to Austin 2007: (22–24), improvements in rehabilitation and re-entry programmes, while useful, would not substantially reduce the number of prisoners since the root cause of the explosion in prison population was that “laws were passed that increased the number of people sent to prison and their length of stay”. Austin’s paper proposes a four-point plan to reduce prisoner expansion, which includes reducing sentence lengths to make them more proportionate to the crimes they represent; ending re-incarceration due to release or probation violations; shortening the length of post-release supervision; and the “decriminalisation” of so called “victimless” crimes. Although it seems unlikely that these proposals will be implemented in the near future, they constitute a well-considered approach to the question of how to undo the damage caused by the punitive era.

Recommendations regarding this issue range from the practical to the idealistic. I am generally in agreement with those who believe that removing criminals from the public can sometimes serve the useful purpose of keeping us safe from them. But I have never understood the value of punishment, other than as a tool to train children. As idealistic as this may sound, I think punishment serves no purpose other than making some people feel revenge. As such, a system based on the virtue of punishment is misguided, not to say bloodthirsty. The negative consequences of the penal system as we currently know it are too many to list and too great to quantify. Consequently, I think that prison as we know it is a failed institution which needs to be rebuilt from the ground up.

I don’t think that anyone who has entered a prison such as North Carolina’s central prison could come away with the notion of anything positive being accomplished behind its walls. Anyone who spends more than a few hours there – including staff members – would be lucky not to feel depressed. In my idealistic world, we always have to remember that prisoners are people, worthy of respect for no other reason than that. In this context, if we are to decide that someone cannot have the privilege of living among us for a while, we should go to great lengths to help find a way to understand and help that person deal with the issues that led to the commission of crime. Such
people should not be left idle, alone or in fear for their health or safety while in prison. It is fair to say that no one knows definitively why people commit crime, or what to do to stop them from doing it. One thing we do know is that the circumstances behind one person’s crime are different from the next. This means that it takes a certain amount of careful consideration to evaluate the so-called offender in order to accurately assess how to best serve the needs of the community. In my mind, inflicting more pain, as I would characterise the effect of the current method of corrections, serves neither the criminal nor the community. It generally makes things worse.

Given the fact that most people currently in prison come from backgrounds marked by social problems, it is fair to assume that many are used to being treated meanly. While I haven’t researched this issue specifically, I have read that many of the most violent offenders in our society come from backgrounds in which they were abused by members of their own family, likewise in the case of sexual abuse. Our current system of corrections subjects such prisoners to conditions that they are familiar with. Will being subjected to more of the same really make them remorseful? Can making them spend more time under these conditions lead to anything positive?

I think that if we as a society honestly want to reduce crime, we need to address the root causes of crime: substance abuse, mental illness, poverty, lack of education and so forth. We know that a large percentage of those currently behind bars come from backgrounds where one or more of these issues were a contributing factor. Making a long-term commitment to really investing in improvements to the social climate underlying crime would likely have a positive effect on crime.

Ultimately, criminal behaviour is a sign of desperation and alienation. People who break the law knowing they might wind up behind bars likely do so because they have lost faith in their ability to flourish. People who follow the laws do so not because they are afraid of what will happen to them if they break them, but because living within the law contributes to the continued success of their life plans. The goal of corrections should be to create and implement strategies that contribute to helping criminals catch on to the true value of living legally, rather than attempt to beat them into submission and hope they eventually see the light. Imprisonment as currently run cannot restore or teach prisoners what it takes to have faith in their ability to build positive futures. Without solving that problem, I think it is highly unlikely that prison will ever be more than a tool of restraint and revenge.

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A QUALITATIVE ASSESSMENT OF THE INTERACTION BETWEEN TRAINING AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE: A CASE STUDY APPROACH

EE Smith*

ABSTRACT
This article outlines the interactive role between change and training in organisations. A qualitative research approach is followed by means of the case study methodology. Two case studies of organisations which have undergone major change and the role played by training in these change interventions are identified, presented and analysed. Often insufficient training programmes are put in place in the wake of change initiatives, and efforts should be made to plan the role of training in the change process. A paradigm shift is required regarding the traditional role of training in facilitating change. Guidelines are provided to facilitate organisational change through training.

INTRODUCTION
Oaktraining.com (2007) alleges that change is a permanent feature of all organisations regardless of sector or size – the main challenge being to manage and harness the process so as to have a positive outcome for the organisation. Schultz (2006: 249) states, however, that although the goal of most organisations is to effect fundamental change and turnaround, few of these corporate change efforts have been successful due to the fact that managers have little experience in renewing organisations. The challenge of training as a solution to both performance problems and mechanisms for change is also highlighted by various authors (see, for example, Coastal 2007; Silicon Beach Training 2007; and Training for Change 2007). Price (1997: 334) asserts that because of organisational change, the traditional role of training has become obsolete. A change in emphasis is required in which training is placed at the centre of human resources planning programmes and the strategic plans of the organisation.

Du Plessis (2007) further stresses that organisations are realising that training is an integral business value-added activity which forms part of their core business. Knowledge acquisition should be a rapid on-site process. Management-issues.com (2007) argues that the success of organisational change is being jeopardised by a failure to put in place adequate training and development measures. Often, insufficient training interventions are being implemented in the wake of organisational change initiatives.

A qualitative research approach is followed in this article. Flick (2002: 2) posits that rapid social change and diversification of life-worlds are increasingly confronting researchers with new social contexts and perspectives – forcing them to make use of inductive strategies. This article investigates two case studies of organisations which have undergone major change and the role played by training in these change interventions. The idea is not to present these case studies as if they are part of a representative sample survey, but to indicate the practical dynamics and interaction of organisational change and training. The two organisations being examined are Motorola and Avis Car Rental.

OBJECTIVES
The primary objective of this article is to highlight the interactive role of training and change in the workplace according to real-life case examples. To help achieve this main objective, the following secondary goals are identified:
To identify and develop two real-life examples of cases illustrating the interaction between training and change in the workplace.

To identify the managerial implications of the interaction between training and change.

To develop a model of training programmes and interventions that could act as a catalyst for organisational change.

To provide guidelines for human resource managers and change agents in how to use training to bring about organisational change.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND APPROACH

A phenomenological research approach is followed in this article. Maykut and Morehouse (1994: 3) argue that this refers to a focus on understanding the meaning events have for persons or organisations being studied, as compared to the positivism approach, which is primarily concerned with the prediction of observable facts or events. Based on this reasoning, a qualitative perspective was used. Berg (1995: 7) states that qualitative research examines how individuals and groups arrange themselves and their settings to give meaning to their daily lives. Patton (2002: 4) agrees that qualitative research involves the study and use of a variety of empirical material (e.g. case study, personal experience, life story, interview, observation and visual text) that describes routine and problematic events in individuals, groups and organisations.

CASE STUDY RESEARCH

Denzin and Lincoln (2000: 435) are of the opinion that case studies have become one of the most common ways to do qualitative inquiry. According to Welman and Kruger (2001: 182), the term ‘case study’ refers to the fact that a limited number of units of analysis, such as an individual, a group or an organisation, are studied intensively and not to some or other technique that is applied. The object of study is a contemporary phenomenon in a real-life context in order to understand a particular problem, issue or concept.

DATA COLLECTION

An in-depth secondary data collection exercise was conducted. This extensive literature study was done by consulting a variety of sources, including an Internet-based study. From this data collection, two typical cases, which illustrate the problem under investigation, were identified. These cases were further developed and refined by obtaining additional information regarding the two organisations under investigation and the manner in which they deal with organisational change and training respectively.

DATA ANALYSIS

The intention is not to focus on prediction, generalisation or casual relationships. Data interpretation is based on a holistic understanding and extrapolation to give meaning to data (Patton 2002: 432). As no primary data was collected, the secondary data, including the two selected cases, was analysed in terms of the objectives of this research project.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000: 447), case study research shares an intense interest in personal views and circumstances of individuals and organisations whose lives and expressions are portrayed by risk exposure and embarrassment, as well as loss of standing and self-esteem. Aspects considered in this project were objectivity, careful planning of the project during the design stage, proper referencing of quoted sources, avoiding of low-priority probing of sensitive issues and not revealing any confidential information regarding participative cases.
AN INTERACTION ANALYSIS OF TRAINING AND CHANGE: A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

Components of interaction

In analysing the literature on organisational change management, three topics continually came to the forefront: organisational development (see, for example, French & Bell 1999: 24; and Harvey & Brown 2006: 3), the learning organisation (Meyer & Botha 2000: 260; Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt 2001: 417) and transformational leadership (Champoux 2006: 279; and Werner 2007: 298). It could therefore be said that organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership form the architecture or building blocks of the interaction between training and change (refer to Figure 1). A typical slogan of training’s role in the changing organisation can therefore be: Training for change through organisational development, in a learning organisation, by means of transformational leadership.

TRANSFORMATION
Organisational development Learning organisation Transformational leadership

Figure 1: The composition of training and change interaction

An in-depth discussion of these three building blocks falls beyond the scope of this article, therefore only the following concept clarifications and the role of training therein are outlined.

Organisational development

Toolpack Consulting (2007) postulates that organisational development is not an easily definable concept, but rather a term used to encompass a collection of planned-change interventions. Greenberg and Baron (1997: 563) define organisational development as “a set of social science techniques designed to plan change in organisational work settings for purposes of enhancing the personal development of individuals and improving the effectiveness of organisational functioning”.

The role of training in organisational development is outlined by the Management for Development Foundation (2007). Training can be used as a planned managerial programme of individual and organisational growth. Effective change processes need to consider both the forces within the individual and the organisational situation surrounding the individual. Training programmes, utilising organisational development interventions, need to maximise the effectiveness of organisational training activities.

Learning organisations

A learning organisation is one that has developed the capacity to adapt and change continuously (Robbins et al. 2001: 416). Robbins and DeCenzo (2004: 106) concur that this organisation entails the involvement of all employees in the organisation in identifying and solving problems, which will enable the organisation to continuously experiment and improve its capacity to deliver new goals and services to customers.

Smith (2007) highlights training’s role in the learning organisation by arguing that training is a systematic approach to incorporate learning in the organisation. Training can be used to prepare employees to meet the challenges and changes in the workplace and to upgrade and refine skills.

Van Tonder (2004: 38) advocates that one of the elements of the learning organisation’s profile is training programmes which are designed to support the change strategies and values held by top management. According to the Human Resource Development Council (2007), training should contribute to the development of the innovative capacity of the learning organisation. In such organisations, where employees are expected to invent their own procedures and are empowered to try new ways of functioning, the “old” training technology seems inappropriate.
Transformational leadership
According to Werner (2007: 298), this new paradigm in leadership aims at creating a compelling vision that inspires total commitment to and acceptance of change by followers (also referred to as charismatic or visionary leadership). Brewster, Carey, Dowling, Grobler, Holland and Warnich (2003: 54) agree that this leadership approach raises leaders and followers to higher levels of motivation with a view to changing the present situation by focusing mainly on the external environment.

The role of training in transformational leadership is outlined by Epitropaki (2007), who postulates that such leadership can be learned, and can and should be the subject of management training and development. Leadership training provides the individual with an awareness of the nature and dynamics of leadership and with the behaviour involved in it. Training further builds the requisite skills for fulfilling leadership roles. It is important, however, that the elements of transformational influences be identified in clear terms in order to facilitate training of transformational leaders. This opinion is also held by Kelloway, Barling and Helleur (2000: 145), who allege that training is the most widely used approach for improving leadership in organisations. Various training programmes can be designed to increase skills relevant to managerial effectiveness and advancement, and conceptual and interpersonal skills.

It should therefore be clear that training for change is facilitated and cultivated through organisational development in a learning organisation by means of transformational leadership. These three aspects can be regarded as the basis for the interaction between training and transformation.

THE ROLE OF TRAINING IN MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE
Both Cooper (2007) and Intugoly.com (2007) concur that increasing emphasis is being placed on the need for continuous training to support change. The challenge of training and development as a solution to both performance problems and mechanisms for change is further highlighted by various authors. AAM Management Information Consulting (2007) stresses the importance of viewing individual development as an investment in human capital. This development can enhance the capacity of people to cope with change.

There is a need to design organisations which promote and enhance learning in order to adapt to changing environments. According to Joyce and Woods (1996: 255), there is a need to develop strategic managers. Much of the training of strategic managers has, however, been limited in its applicability to contemporary conditions. Figure 2 illustrates the relationship between strategic choice and environmental determinants in organisational adaptation. Training’s role in these strategic choices and organisational adaptation is also outlined.

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Figure 2: Relationship between strategic choice and environmental determinants in organisational adaptation
Source: Jones & Mann (1992: 45).

Organisations in quadrant 1 of figure 2 are exposed to strong environmental pressures and have few available strategic choices. The role of training is primarily for survival. Organisations in
quadrant 2 experience powerful external constraints characterised by differentiated strategic choice. As strategic choices are limited in scope by external constraints, training does not have a fully developmental role. This results in a hybrid training role – training for improvement. Organisations dealing with quadrant 3 situations have few external constraints and freedom of strategic choice. The tendency is to move into areas which imply that goal-directed change is a strong feature. The role of training can be viewed as facilitating the prospecting of new activities, hence training for development. Quadrant 4 organisations are characterised by few strategic choices and external pressures. Training on organisational level seems to be directionless – random training (Jones & Mann 1992: 48–49). It is clearly emphasised in figure 2 that training can play an important role in the development or adaptation of an organisation to external changes or pressures. Training should be the key element in any change project. The result of training efforts could be the development of new skills so that people are left with the ability to pursue continuous improvement or that they are made aware of the need for change.

Brill and Worth (1997: 62) also indicate the role of training in initiating the change process. Through seminars or workshops, people can examine personal needs, levels of morale and leadership styles. This new insight and perspective can help people to disconnect from old habits and to open up to initiating change in the organisation. According to Bartridge (2007), the use of training during the implementation stage of the change process is also important. This means that people need to be re-oriented or redirected, or engaged in new activities which require new knowledge, motivation or skills. Major changes involve many new skills. A change in behaviour patterns and the work environment can both benefit from training programmes.

Shepherd (2007), on the other hand, advocates the creation of a virtual training organisation and states that the “traditional training organisation”, if it is to assist with organisational transformation, needs to transform itself. The traditional training organisation focuses on the development of individual skills, does not participate in the organisation’s planning efforts and is not a change agent. Training must therefore not only be seen as a functional area in the organisation, but needs to possess the capabilities necessary to help transform it.

Van Tonder (2007) alleges that despite the fact that training programmes have improved with the deployment of technology and that trainers have never had a better set of tools to meet the variable needs of the contemporary organisation, the users are often not guided when new training programmes are implemented, as in the case when change management programmes are initiated. Careful attention should be given to trainees as to why and how training programmes are being implemented so as to ensure that they act as a vehicle for bringing about changes in the organisation.

CASES ILLUSTRATING THE INTERACTION BETWEEN TRAINING AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Case study 1: Training and change at Motorola
Motorola is a global leader in providing integrated communications and embedded solutions, including software-enhanced wireless telephones, messaging products and Internet-access products; semiconductor solutions; electronic systems and digital and analogue systems; and set-top terminals for broadband cable television. Motorola’s enviable position currently contrasts with that in 1979 when it became evident to top management that the Japanese were outdoing the organisation with their high-quality products, pushing Motorola into a secondary role in the electronics market. The wireless communication industry is wrought with constant change. Training is no exception. In response to these challenges, a segment of Motorola’s training business has examined learners’ changing needs, and projected and implemented a future direction for training. Future focus is on the evolution of instructor resources and integrating learning-to-learn concepts into technical courses. Educational activities at the organisation’s training and
education centre, which has been dubbed “Motorola University”, provide educational support for the concept of quality improvement.

Specific techniques for change and improvement at Motorola

The following are some techniques used by Motorola for change and improvement in the organisation:

- **Training and development**
  Motorola spends more than $100 million a year on training – 40% of that is devoted to quality training for all employees. Motorola has had the foresight to realise that nothing less than top-to-bottom employee education and retraining is needed to change how the organisation operates if it is to compete effectively. Motorola developed one of the best and largest corporate-training programmes in the US. The programme not only directly improves Motorola, but also increases the self-worth of employees and commitment to the organisation. Curriculum-based training for every employee is ongoing to keep pace with changing job requirements. All employees worldwide receive the equivalent of five days of job-relevant training per year. In a symbolic and substantial way, the organisation supports a thinking workforce, as shown by the following programmes:

  - **Tailored executive development**
    This programme focuses on training executives to understand corporate strategy and how to achieve it. The main objectives of this programme are to increase senior executives’ knowledge of future external events and the potential effect thereof on Motorola, and to enhance the ability of these executives to influence Motorola’s future in the face of sweeping changes.

  - **Competitive awareness programme**
    This programme educates and trains 2,500 managers each year. Sixteen hours of training make them aware of Motorola’s competition and what the organisation can do about it.

  - **Workforce training**
    Motorola conducts a massive education and training programme for its employees, which is held primarily at Motorola University. The charter of this university is not so much to educate people, but to be an agent for change, with emphasis on retraining workers and redefining jobs. The programme also plays an important role in transmitting the organisation’s work culture. In addition to courses in technical and business skills, emphasis is placed on remedial mathematics and improved reading skills. Motorola’s large in-house training programmes compete with those developed and offered elsewhere.

  - **Quality function development (QFD)**
    This is a new and potentially powerful customer diagnostic tool. It brings the ideas of the customer into the design and production process. The objective is to reduce design time, labour defects and costs.

  - **Next operation as customer**
    This technique can be used to improve service and product quality. It requires every employee to view the next user of the product or service on which they are working as a customer. The next customer may be the next department, person, process or operation to receive that product or service.

  - **Six Sigma quality control**
    The organisation has further embarked on a programme to eliminate defects throughout the organisation. The programme, Six-Sigma, is aimed at zero-defect manufacturing. It has been
implemented in the organisation for over 18 years, extending it beyond manufacturing into transactional, support and service functions. With presence in over 20 countries around the world, this programme is offered on a global basis. Through a partnership with Novations Group Inc.’s e-learning development expertise, Six Sigma is also offered online.

- **Cultural change**

  In the early 1990s, the organisation set a goal to attain total quality management (TQM) throughout the organisation. This required a complete overhaul of organisational culture. The plan had the following elements: a new reward and recognition system based on group’s return on net assets; uniform quality measurement and goals for all divisions by identifying total defects per unit; communication of new rules; training people on newly required skills, such as how to manage change and to prepare for empowerment; identification, nurture and support of facilitators, and modification of senior executive behaviour to support new and different way of doing things.

  Source: Adapted from Bass & Avolio (1994: 156–162) and http://www.motorola.com

**EVALUATION OF THE MOTOROLA CASE STUDY: MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS**

Motorola’s move to its current position in the market is based on a relentless drive to improve product and service quality. To accomplish this, Motorola has invested heavily in its human resources – educating and training both management and the workforce in the techniques of quality improvement. Time and money to educate, train and retrain, both at executive-development and manufacturing level, are a major priority. Although not the only measure for change and improvement, training seems to be the most important. Motorola developed one of the best and largest corporate-training programmes in the US. The charter of Motorola University is not so much to educate people (which makes it different from other educational institutions), but to be an agent for change. Training is therefore not utilised just for the sake of having a training programme in the organisation, but to facilitate change in the organisation. Quality and training both receive strong support from top management, backed by financial resources to fund training and to compensate employees who have learned the necessary skills to continuously improve performance. Management realises that being successful requires better anticipation of change, willingness to commit resources and the capability to recognise the need for constant improvement.

**Case study 2: Continuous change and improvement at Avis Car Rental**

Avis is represented in 96 countries, delivering a consistent and recognisable service from more than 2 700 locations. The success story of Avis can be summed up in three very famous words: “We try harder”. This became the centrepiece of a long-term advertising campaign and one of the most famous advertising slogans of all times. The standard was set. In 1963, Avis produced an advertisement which asked customers to complain if they found something wrong. Setting standards in such a public way and generating enthusiasm has been ongoing for more than 40 years. How has this happened? Avis had built continuous improvement into its culture. It has succeeded in making the continuous change process implicit. If culture is the bedrock of success, training, measurement, information systems and recognition are the building blocks of Avis’s excellence. Employees are regarded as major instigators of change through enabling them to take ownership of customer service, which requires high levels of competency and clarity. Achieving competence requires training, but not just a two-day injection on customer care. A completely new and innovative training approach for front-line staff was developed.

- **Vision, values and leadership**

  Avis entered Europe with the vision of building the best and fastest-growing car rental business. This vision has not changed since then. It is not surprising that each and every employee is clear
about what the organisation is trying to achieve. This vision has driven its people, networks, outlets and technology. The organisation has a business-planning process that matches its empowering culture. Guidelines are set for achievement, people, customer satisfaction, revenue growth and financing. Annual planning is supplemented by profit improvement plans (PIPs). Avis needs to be seen as an organisation where values and culture are clearly understood and lived.

- **Process of management**

Avis works through six key organisational and managerial processes which are aligned to its strategy of customer retention and empowerment of staff as outlined in Figure 3.

![Figure 3: Avis’s management and organisational processes](image)

Avis Management Services, the headquarters of the Avis Group, combines corporate leadership with specialist support functions. Avis Management Services provides policy determination and strategic direction. The model in Figure 3 reflects Avis’s value of simplicity and the link, through the actions of management, between customer retention and empowerment. The main processes are: goals and practices (providing direction), rewards and expectations (through motivation) and feedback and modelling (providing guidance). Management sets direction by what it measures and what it pays attention to. Measurement starts with the customer, integrating the results with management of the organisation. Expectation setting begins with recruitment. Avis focuses on hiring people who are entrepreneurial by nature and who like people. “Spirit of Avis” is a recognition programme – a reward is given to those who demonstrate the values by action.

- **Understanding customers**

The organisation has three mechanisms for understanding its customers: surveys, enquiries and complaints, and meetings with staff and management. Each month more than 12 000 customers are selected at random from those who have rented a car in the previous month. These customers are sent a questionnaire and asked to record their level of satisfaction. The training and customer service functions use the data to identify where changes are necessary.

- **Operational excellence**

Avis always maintains a tight control on costs. The Wizzard-system is a real-time, online reservation and rental administration system, handling 2.5 million transactions per day. A Wizzard cardholder can complete a rental agreement in less than two minutes. This system also provides vital data for sales and marketing.

- **Engaging people**

People are the heart of this organisation. The organisation rarely recruits senior people – employees are encouraged to grow and develop their careers with Avis, and a priority is to recruit from within. This policy demands huge investments in training and development. The chief executive officer claims: “Marketing might win customers, but it’s training that keeps them.” The organisation has an extensive training programme. The Avis Rental Sales Agent Development Programme is based on developing 144 competencies with independent assessment throughout
which takes 18 months to complete. These competencies are not only developed through formal courses but through a living, breathing example of success – Avis itself.

**Source:** Adapted from Emeraldinsight.com (2007); Jackson (1997: 173–184); and http://www.avis.co.za

**EVALUATION OF THE AVIS CASE STUDY: MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS**

A long-term approach towards change is to build continuous improvement into the organisation’s culture. Avis has succeeded in making the naturally occurring, continuous change process implicit. Avis’s culture of continuous change appears to be the bedrock of its success. Training is one of the building blocks of its excellence. The vision of Avis is the driving force behind what it does with its people, outlets and technology. The profit improvement plan, which cascades to all levels of the organisation, is the one mechanism which ensures continuous improvement. The focus is on hiring people who are more entrepreneurially oriented by nature and therefore more inclined towards innovation and change. Avis’s success is based on an in-depth understanding of customer needs and how to satisfy them. It appears that people are at the heart of the organisation, which demands significant investment in training and development. Avis provides an extensive training programme for frontline staff to develop knowledge, skills and behaviour.

**CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

It appears that training plays a vital role in organisational change initiatives. Training for change is best facilitated through organisational development, in a learning organisation, by means of transformational leadership. Through organisational development interventions, training can be used as a planned managerial programme of both individual and organisational growth. In a learning organisation, training can be used to prepare employees to meet the challenges and changes in the workplace and to upgrade and refine skills. Training interventions appear to be the most widely used approach for improving leadership in organisations. Various training programmes can be designed to increase skills relevant to managerial effectiveness and advancement, and conceptual and interpersonal skills. Increased emphasis is being placed in viewing individual development as an investment in human capital, which can enhance the capacity of people to cope with change. There is a growing need to design organisations which promote and enhance learning in order to adapt to changing environments.

An analysis of the selected cases showed how these organisations implemented change and the role of training in these change initiatives. Central to all these changes is the facilitating role of training. The following are some of the main conclusions which can be drawn from the case study analyses:

- People should be trained, not only to improve knowledge, skills and attitudes, but to be agents for change in the organisation.
- Accomplishing change in the organisation requires investments (time and money) in human resources, by educating and training both at executive-development and manufacturing level.
- Management requires better anticipation of change and not mere reaction to it.
- Organisational change should be seen as an opportunity for individual training in the organisation.
- The continuous change process needs to be made implicit by building continuous improvement into the organisation’s culture.

A menu or checklist of possible training programmes and interventions that could be used to bring about organisational change is portrayed in Figure 4.
Overall workforce training
Tailored executive development
Competitive awareness programmes
Six Sigma quality control
Cultural change programmes
Continuous improvement programmes
Understanding customers
Operational excellence programmes
Engaging people
Customer complaint programmes
Measurement of results
Adopting state-of-the-art info systems
Visionary leadership programmes
Employee empowerment programmes
Customer retention programmes

Figure 4: A model of possible training programmes and interventions acting as catalysts for organisational change

These training programmes and interventions clearly indicate training’s critical role in organisational change. Table 1 outlines general guidelines and recommendations to be used for successfully aligning training and change initiatives in the organisation:

Table 1: Guidelines and recommendations for using training to facilitate organisational change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Guidelines/recommendations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The traditional role of training has become obsolete. A change in emphasis is required in which training is placed at the centre of human resources planning programmes and the strategic plans of the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>As insufficient training programmes are often put in place by human resources management in the wake of organisational change initiatives, considerate efforts should be made to plan training’s role in the change process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Training’s role in organisational change should be regarded as an integral business value-added activity which forms part of the business’s core activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Training should be used as a planned managerial programme of individual and organisational growth. Training programmes, utilising organisational development interventions, need to maximise the effectiveness of organisational training activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Training can be used to prepare employees to meet the challenges and changes in the workplace and to upgrade and refine skills. Training programmes should be designed to support the change strategies and values held by top management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>As the traditional role of training focused on specific, well-defined skills needed by employees to improve job performance, additional types of training are needed to empower employees which will contribute to the development of the innovative capacity of the changing organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>As training is the most widely used approach for improving leadership in organisations, the elements of transformational influences should be identified in clear terms in order to facilitate training of transformational leaders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Employee development should be viewed as an investment in human capital which could enhance the capacity of people to cope with organisational change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The use of training programmes during the implementation of change is vital – employees need to be re-oriented, redirected or engaged in new activities, requiring new knowledge, motivation or skills. A change in behaviour patterns and the work environment can both benefit from training programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Training should not only be seen as a functional area in the organisation, but needs to possess the capabilities necessary to help transform it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Trainees should be guided when new training programmes are implemented as in the case when guidance is provided with initiating change management programmes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This article highlighted the developmental importance of training as a function of organisational change from a practical perspective. The following extract is appropriate with which to conclude this article:
There seems to be enough evidence that the traditional approaches to managing change are training and development. The issue is what the change agents, particularly human resources practitioners, should do in order to escalate the learning process in their organisation so as to match the daunting challenges of change . . . which require new collective approaches to training and development (Mbigi & Maree 1997: 110 & 115).

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CONSUMER REACTIONS TO SPORT-EVENT SPONSORSHIP: A CASE STUDY OF THE 2006 CAPE ARGUS PICK 'N PAY CYCLE TOUR

B Knott* & K Swart†

ABSTRACT
Sport-event sponsorship has rarely undergone systematic study, and few empirical studies have looked at the effect of sponsorship on the consumer. This study investigated consumer reactions to the sponsor organisations and identified factors that influenced reactions among participants of the 2006 Cape Argus Pick ’n Pay Cycle Tour (CAPPCT). The descriptive research design consisted of self-administered questionnaires, conducted online, on the CAPPCT website. Emails containing a hyperlink to the survey were sent out to eligible participants from the CAPPCT database. A response of 213 valid answers was received. The findings indicated that event participants have a highly positive reaction to event sponsors. There are three components of this positive reaction: i) participants have a highly positive reaction toward the event; ii) they do not believe that the event is over-commercialised; and iii) the event sponsorship has a positive influence on the participants’ attitudes towards behavioural intent (namely high levels of awareness of and support for sponsors, as well as influencing the image perceptions of and satisfaction with sponsors, and increased likelihood to purchase).

INTRODUCTION
There has been a dearth of research in the Special Interest Tourism (SIT) market of sport tourism, especially in South Africa (Shaffie 2005: 4). Playing a key role in both the supply and demand sides of the sport-event marketing system, sponsorship has rarely undergone systematic study, and very few empirical studies have looked at the effect of sponsorship on the consumer (Lee, Sandler & Shani 1997). Nevertheless, sport sponsorship continues to grow in popularity and value as a sport-event marketing tool, both in this country and internationally.

D’Astous and Bitz (1995) note a lack of empirical studies examining the impact of sponsorship on consumers. Most studies have tended to be broad measures of awareness and favourability, which McDonald (1991: 32) claims is no substitute for understanding perception and response. D’Astous and Bitz (1995) also conclude that consumer interest or involvement in an event has a heightened impact on sponsorship perceptions. Getz (1997: 24) notes a trend toward sponsoring events where consumers are participants and not just spectators, such as the Cape Argus Pick ’n Pay Cycle Tour (CAPPCT), which has approximately 35 000 participants annually. This study therefore aims to investigate consumer reactions to the sponsoring organisations and to identify the factors that influence consumer reactions among high-involvement consumers, namely participants of the CAPPCT 2006.

Through its phenomenal ability to generate audiences and build consumer relationships, sport has been transformed from a game into a thriving industry (Media Forum: get with the game, 1999: 63). Gwinner (1997) claims that the proliferation of leisure events and a global trend towards increased leisure pursuits in today’s society has led to the growing importance of sport-event sponsorship internationally. The sponsor-event relationship is regarded as symbiotic, as corporations promote themselves through events, and events are dependent on the revenue and services that they derive from the sponsors (Getz 1997: 24). Within South Africa, sport sponsorship is at present the fastest-growing segment of the communications mix, growing by
20.4% per annum between 1985 and 2003. Total expenditure on sport sponsorship in South Africa in 2003 was valued at R3.2 billion (BMI Sport Info 2004).

Sport has traditionally been the largest and most widely used sponsorship sector, accounting for between 75 and 80% of total sponsorship spend in the UK and the US (Thwaites 1994). Thwaites further suggests that sport exhibits a number of advantages over other sectors, such as high levels of visibility and the ability to target a full range of demographic and psychographic segments. It has the potential to target mass markets or specific niches, and is easily usable for a global marketing approach, with an ability to transcend national boundaries and overcome cultural barriers. However, although the sport sector remains the most popular, other sectors, such as music, theatre, dance, art, the environment and education, are becoming increasingly popular (Duffy 2003: 84).

Despite the growing use of sport-event sponsorship, there is a dearth of academic literature to guide a company’s decisions about what events to sponsor, how to leverage their sponsorship resources and what responses to expect (Speed & Thompson 2000: 226). D’Astous and Bitz (1995) noted that there was a need for research aimed at identifying and understanding the factors that influence consumer reactions towards sponsoring activities. Sponsorship research to date has not adopted any specific theoretical framework that could guide investigations of consumers’ reactions to sponsorship, and there is much debate over research methodology (Speed & Thompson 2000: 226).

MEASURING CONSUMER REACTIONS TO SPORT-EVENT SPONSORSHIP

The discussion now turns more specifically to the empirical studies that have looked at the effect of sponsorship on the consumer. Most of these measure the impact of the sponsorship effort on the recall and recognition of sponsors. Turco (1995: 9–11) examined both corporate image and purchase intention effects of sponsorship awareness, finding that respondents (event spectators) indicated that they had a more favourable image of the company and that they would be more likely to purchase their products.

Lee et al. (1997: 160) noted the increasing importance of understanding consumer reaction to the sponsoring organisation and of investigating how sponsorship influences consumers. They identified three attitude constructs, based on their definition of sponsorship, namely attitude towards the event, attitude towards commercialisation, and attitude towards behavioural intent (Lee et al. 1997: 163). This is now further explained:

Attitude towards the event

An event’s image is represented by the public’s overall subjective perceptions of its activities (Gwinner 1997). A consistently favourable or unfavourable response to an event is formed through the accumulation of an individual’s experiences over time. This factor relates to the consumers’ enjoyment of the event, their support for the event and their belief that it represents a high-quality performance.

D’Astous and Bitz (1995) proposed three factors that influence the perceived image of the event: event type, event characteristics and other individual factors. Gwinner (1997) also proposes that a range of other variable individual factors are also likely to affect an individual’s event image perceptions. These may be related to the number of images an individual associates with an event, the strength of each particular image and the unique experiences an individual associates with an event.

Attitude towards commercialisation

It has already been discussed that there is an increase in sponsorship-linked marketing activities surrounding sport events. This can be referred to as the “commercialisation” of sport events. Meenaghan and Shipley (1999) explain that highly commercialised categories of sponsorship are...
adjudged by consumers to be similar to advertising and less deserving of goodwill. Perceived over-exploitation of events reduces the level of goodwill accorded to the sponsor.

**Attitude towards behavioural intent**

Consumers differ in their inclination to act on the sponsorship activity or messages of the sponsoring companies. For example, this could range from consumer awareness of sponsoring brands, to consumer willingness to purchase the products or services of sponsoring companies.

These constructs and their relationship to each other are depicted in figure 1.

![Figure 1: Relationship of attitudinal constructs (adapted from Lee et al. 1997: 163)](image)

The above constructs led the researcher to propose the following sub-hypotheses for the first hypothesis: Ho: Consumers have a positive reaction to sport-event sponsors.

Ha: Participants have a highly positive reaction towards the CAPPCT event.

Hb: Participants have a negative reaction towards commercialisation.

Hc: Sponsorship induces a positive influence on the participants’ attitude towards behavioural intent.

**METHODOLOGY**

The primary research objective was to identify reactions to sport sponsorship among the event participants. The researcher conducted experience interviews with selected individuals in order to gain insights into the knowledge and experience of those familiar with the general subjects of corporate sponsorship, and event marketing and management. These interviews were conducted in an informal, semi-structured manner.

The descriptive research design consisted of posting self-administered questionnaires on the CAPPCT website: http://www.cycletour.co.za. A general newsletter email, that included a covering paragraph explaining the study, was sent to the entire CAPPCT database of approximately 30 000 people. This explained the reason for the research and contained the link for respondents to click on, directing them to the actual hypertext mark-up language (HTML) coded survey.

Email was chosen as opposed to mail surveys due mostly to its cost effectiveness and immediacy of response. However, there were many factors that were considered when deciding which instrument to use, with some only applicable to this particular study. According to Shaffie
(2005: 67), the use of email surveys does have some drawbacks and its legitimacy as a research tool is still being questioned. However, in practice it appears that the medium is gaining popularity in use (Shaffie 2005: 67).

The survey itself was hosted on the same server as the official CAPPCT website. However, it was not visible or accessible to ordinary visitors to the site because the link did not appear on the user interface of the website. It was thus only accessible to those who received the email containing the hyperlink. In effect, respondents were invited to visit the website and complete the survey. “Hiding” the survey and distributing the link allowed a greater degree of control to be maintained over who had access to it.

The physical layout of the survey allowed the respondents to click the checkboxes in order to select their answers. The survey was designed in such a way that respondents only had to scroll down in order to view the rest of the survey, and on completion, click a “Submit” button. All the submitted answers from respondents were then gathered and captured into a Microsoft Access database.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Summary profile of respondents

The respondents were mostly people who had participated in the CAPPCT a number of times, with 32.4% of the respondents having cycled in three to five events and 36.2% having cycled in six or more events. Two-thirds of the respondents (66.8%) had cycled in three or more events. The respondent profile was 82% male and 18% female. Nearly 59% of respondents fell within the two age categories of 31 to 40 years (28.2%) and 41 to 50 years (30.5%). This is similar to the average age of total race participants, which is 40 years for males and 37 years for females. According to historical race classification and income, the respondent profile is very skewed toward ‘white’ (84%), high-income earners, with nearly half the respondents (49.9%) earning more than R20 000 per month. Of the respondents, 52% had at least a university or a postgraduate degree, with another 37% having obtained a certificate, diploma or other industry qualification. The biggest employment categories were “administration/manager” (20.2%), “professional/doctor” (20.2%) and “businessperson” (14.1%), which accounted for over half the respondents.

These demographic results were not as representative of the general event profile as was hoped for. This is certainly a limitation in this study and perhaps related to the electronic method of the survey. All of the following findings will therefore need to take this respondent profile into consideration.

Apart from the demographics, the researcher suggests that the respondents have a high level of involvement with the event. Respondents believe that the CAPPCT is a prestigious event (91% agreement) that is held in high regard by their community (93%). Taking part in the event is of great importance to them (92%). It is not certain whether respondents are highly involved in the sport of cycling as only 43% agreed that they think about cycling all the time, although 70% cycle as often as they can.

IDENTIFYING REACTIONS TO SPONSORSHIP

Having analysed the profile of respondents, this section now looks at Research Objective #1: To identify reactions to sport sponsorship among the event participants.

The first measure of consumer reaction was to gauge respondents’ awareness of the event sponsors. The two primary naming-rights sponsors, Cape Argus (96.2%) and Pick ’n Pay (96.7%), received the highest levels of awareness, as would be expected. Powerade (86.4%) and Coca-Cola (77.9%) also showed high levels of awareness, with Medi-Clinic (48.8%) the only other awareness percentage of magnitude.
Further to the respondent awareness of sponsors, respondents were asked if they held a more favourable perception of the sponsoring companies or brands as a result of their association with or sponsorship of the Cycle Tour. Just over 70% (71.4%) of total respondents agreed that they held a more favourable perception of these companies because of their sponsorship.

Lee et al. (1997: 160) identified three attitude constructs that are involved in the formation of consumer attitude or response towards the sponsor. These are: attitude towards the event, attitude towards commercialisation, and attitude towards behavioural intent. The following section now looks at each of these constructs in turn.

**ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE EVENT**

Consumers' attitude towards an event is represented by their overall, subjective perceptions of the event's activities (Gwinner 1997). A consistently favourable or unfavourable response to an event is formed through the accumulation of individuals' experiences over time. This factor relates to consumers' enjoyment of the event, their support for the event and their belief that it represents a high-quality performance.

From the findings, it is evident that the participants believe that the CAPPCT is a prestigious event (91% agreement) and an event that is held in high regard by their community (93%). Taking part in the event is of great importance (92%) to respondents.

**ATTITUDE TOWARDS COMMERCIALISATION**

There is an increase in sponsorship-linked marketing activities surrounding sport events. This can be referred to as the “commercialisation” of sport events (Lee et al. 1997: 163). Meenaghan and Shipley (1999) explain that highly commercialised categories of sponsorship are adjudged by consumers to be similar to advertising and less deserving of goodwill. Perceived over-exploitation of events reduces the level of goodwill accorded to the sponsor, negatively impacting the consumer response toward the sponsor.

The only statement with moderate agreement (54%) from respondents was 9.1, which read: “Companies that sponsor this event should not try to commercialise it.” The general disagreement with the other statements is consistent with the high level of favourable perception toward sponsors already discussed. While respondents agree that companies should not try to commercialise the event, they do not appear to believe that this particular event is too commercialised (14.1%), or that the Cycle Tour brand or logo should not be used for commercial purposes (35.2%). Respondents appear to support the use of sponsorship in this event, disagreeing with the statements that sponsors should rather spend their money on improving the quality of their products/services (8.9%) or that they would prefer to see sponsors spending their money on grassroots cycling development (24.9%).

**ATTITUDE TOWARDS BEHAVIOURAL INTENT**

The third construct involved in the formation of consumer perception of sponsorship is the attitude of consumers toward their behavioural intent (Lee et al. 1997: 163). Consumers differ in their inclination to act on the sponsorship activity or messages of the sponsoring companies. For example, this could range from consumer awareness of sponsoring brands to influencing consumer perceptions of the sponsor, or to consumer willingness to purchase the products or services of sponsoring companies.

Participants were asked their agreement with a range of statements, using an eight-item, five-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree), with 3 being “unsure”. There appears to be strongest agreement that the sponsorship has (with mean scores in brackets) made participants aware of the sponsors (2.20) and more likely to support the sponsor over competing companies (2.26). The responses to statements 10.2 and 10.7 (with mean scores in
brackets) support the fact that respondents are more likely to buy the sponsors products (2.55) and do not agree that sponsorship has no impact on their purchasing behaviour (2.97).

The results indicate that (with mean scores in brackets) respondents were uncertain as to whether the sponsorship allowed them to interact/communicate with or relate to the company on a more personal level (2.87), although they do tend to agree that the event sponsorship has affected/influenced them more than the company’s conventional advertising (2.42).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Major hypothesis 1

Ho: Participants have a positive reaction to event sponsors

This hypothesis cannot be rejected. There was a very high awareness rating for the two joint primary sponsors, Pick ‘n Pay and Cape Argus, with over 96% of respondents aware of these sponsors. Just over 70% (71.4%) agreed that they held a more favourable perception of the sponsoring companies because of their sponsorship.

There was very high agreement with a range of statements given to explain this favourable reaction, with agreement ranging between 92 and 98%. These statements were:

“Tappreciate the sponsor’s commitment to this event over the years.”
“Tappreciate the sponsor for making it possible for this event to take place.”
“By sponsoring this event, the sponsor has made a positive contribution to society.”
“I appreciate that the sponsor has shown their commitment to cycling through a range of other activities, projects and initiatives.”
“I have enjoyed participating in events sponsored by this company/brand.”

The researcher thus concludes that the awareness and favourability towards event sponsors among participants is significant enough for the acceptance of this first hypothesis.

As discussed earlier, the reaction to sponsors is broken up into three components: reaction towards the event, reaction towards commercialisation and reaction toward buying behaviour. These are now dealt with in turn, as sub-hypotheses:

SUB-HYPOTHESES

Ha: Participants have a highly positive reaction towards the event

This sub-hypothesis cannot be rejected. Consumers’ attitude towards an event is represented by their overall subjective perceptions of the event’s activities (Gwinner 1997). A consistently favourable or unfavourable response to an event is formed through the accumulation of individuals’ experiences over time. This factor relates to consumers’ enjoyment of the event, their support for the event and their belief that it represents a high quality performance.

There was very high agreement with the following statements posed, ranging from 91 to 93% agreement:

“People in my community think very highly of the Cape Argus Pick ‘n Pay Cycle Tour.”
“It is considered prestigious to participate in the Cape Argus Pick ‘n Pay Cycle Tour.”
“Taking part in the Cape Argus Pick ‘n Pay Cycle Tour is very important to me.”

Once again, this high level of agreement did not significantly differ by any demographic factors tested.

Hb: Participants have a negative reaction towards commercialisation

This sub-hypothesis cannot be accepted. There is an increase in sponsorship-linked marketing activities surrounding sport events. This can be referred to as the “commercialisation” of sport events (Lee et al. 1997: 163). Meenaghan and Shipley (1999) explain that highly commercialised categories of sponsorship are adjudged by consumers to be similar to advertising, and less
Consumer reactions to sport-event sponsorship

Consumer reactions to sport-event sponsorship deserves of goodwill. Perceived over-exploitation of events reduces the level of goodwill accorded to the sponsor, negatively impacting the consumer response toward the sponsor.

From the findings it appears that respondents do not believe that the event is too commercialised. They would not like sponsors to rather spend their money on improving their products/services, and would generally not prefer sponsors to spend their money on “grassroots” cycling development rather than on event sponsorship.

**Hc: Sponsorship induces a positive influence on the participants’ attitude towards behavioural intent**

This sub-hypothesis cannot be rejected. Consumers differ in their inclination to act on the sponsorship activity or messages of the sponsoring companies. For example, this could range from consumer awareness of sponsoring brands to influencing consumer perceptions of the sponsor, or to consumer willingness to purchase the products or services of sponsoring companies (Lee et al. 1997: 163).

It appears that the strongest consumer reaction to sponsorship may be greater awareness of the company or brand. Respondents showed high levels of agreement with the two statements:

- Knowing of the sponsorship . . .
- made me more aware of the company/brand and its products.
- made me more likely to support this company over its competitors.

Although less significantly than awareness, respondents also agreed that the sponsorship influenced their purchasing behaviour and image perceptions of the sponsors, agreeing with the statements:

- Knowing of the sponsorship . . .
- made me more likely to buy the company’s products.
- gave me greater satisfaction in using the company’s products.
- changed my perceptions of the company.

There was general disagreement that sponsorship had no impact on respondents’ purchasing decisions. Linking these responses with the earlier strong agreement for support over competitors, it appears that sponsorship directly impacts respondent buying behaviour.

**CONCLUDING REMARKS**

It is envisaged that this investigation of participants’ reactions to sponsorship, and factors influencing these reactions, will provide the Cape Town Cycle Tour Trust with a greater understanding of the effectiveness of the event sponsorship, which will aid the vital event management functions of sponsor feedback, satisfaction and procurement. By contributing toward the limited knowledge base of sport-event sponsorship in South Africa, the study provides useful insights for corporate marketers wanting to use sport as a brand-building tool, as well as for sport-event managers wanting to procure and leverage sponsorship opportunities.

The CAPPCT is one of a few major sport events that occurs annually in South Africa, still having the potential for greater development through a better understanding of sport-event sponsorship. Current and potential sponsors in turn will gain a better understanding of the effectiveness of the medium, rationalising their investment commitment to sport events.

As part of a broader study of key events in the Western Cape region and KwaZulu-Natal, the study provides a more holistic understanding of the management of sport events. South Africa is recognising the impact of the sport tourism market on the economy and as a nation-building tool. It is hoped that the results of this study will be useful for stakeholders of future major events in South Africa, particularly in light of the FIFA World Cup to be hosted in South Africa in 2010.

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A THEORETICAL BASIS FOR MANAGING HUMAN RESOURCES IN TOURISM

Z Bayat* & IW Ferreira†

ABSTRACT
The complexity of human resource management as a sub-component of the management process per se and as a fully-fledged academic discipline in its own right is underpinned by basic philosophical and theoretical foundations relevant to the tourism industry in South Africa.

The article expounds, inter alia, a philosophy of management sciences which encompasses various approaches to that field vis-à-vis its evolution over time.

Various theoretical perspectives on human resource management are explained in the article, from philosophy as applicable to the social sciences, through to a philosophical basis for public management, to a normative theory for the management of human resources.

A systems model as a possible approach to the field of human resource management is provided, together with a number of other paradigmatic approaches to the field.

A conclusion is provided at the end, with a reference list completing the article.

INTRODUCTION
In order to explore a theoretical basis for the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective, a “funnel” approach will be followed to illustrate the development of the concept from a philosophical point of departure.

A funnel approach allows the researcher to conceptualise the study from a generalistic perspective to the particular perspective. This means that generalities should first be understood from a holistic point of view before attempts can be made to understand the particular aspects.

An example of a funnel approach could be that of a systems model, where one is able to adopt a particular supposition about a given matter, field, aspect, approach or viewpoint from the broader elements, which will encompass a number of sub-elements and which, as part of the whole, will contribute to understanding of the complete systems model.

A case in point is Easton’s (1979: 29–30) input-output transformational systems model of a political system that comprises various external environments, internal environments, a conversion mechanism, an output and a feedback mechanism, feeding goal achievement back to the relevant original external environment, changing it to become the original objective set for goal achievement. Once the goal has been achieved and the original external environment accordingly changed from dysfunctionality to functionality, then a new goal can be set, enabling the input-output transformational system to commence a new cycle, which, depending on the successive quests for new goal achievements, can continue indefinitely (Easton: 1979: 29–30).

It has to be pointed out that the systems approach, per se, is not without shortcomings. The chapter by Erasmus in Bayat and Meyer (1991, chapter 6) has reference here.

In this study, a philosophical and theoretical premise for developing a human resources framework for tourism from a public management perspective is preceded by a brief explanation of the term “philosophy”, followed by an exposition of viewpoints on the paradigmatic status of the discipline of public management. This will be followed by a description of the various theoretical approaches to the subject field of public management, whereafter a description of a number of theories for human resource management will be provided within the context of the
development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

PHILOSOPHY AS APPLICABLE TO THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Within the context of the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective, it is regarded as necessary for this study to take cognisance of a brief overview of a number of philosophical concepts relevant to the research.

A theoretical and normative approach, such as used in this research study, needs to be conceptualised from a basic philosophical point of departure that will serve as a firm foundation of the *raison d’être* of the science and discipline of public management and its constituent sub-components, which, for the purpose of this study, include the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

A brief discussion on the meaning and nature and extent of philosophy as a fundamental basis of all human action and interaction will be provided in this section, bearing in mind that all discussions and explanations about this study need to take place against a continuum of the evolution of human development and behaviour as well as political, economic, sociocultural, legal and environmental external environments with specific reference to the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

Ferreira (1996: 87) cites Copi (1969: 286), who states that the word “philosophy” is derived from two Greek words, namely *philos* meaning “love”, and *sophia* meaning “wisdom”. From this explanation, it can be inferred that philosophy means, literally translated, “the pursuit of wisdom”.

Ferreira (1996: 87) refers to Copi (1969: 286), who states that philosophy began in the 6th century BC in Greek colonies on the western coast of Asia Minor. The earliest philosophers regarded all knowledge as their responsibility. They were the first scientists and also the first philosophers. They undertook both to describe and to explain the world around them, and also presumed to give advice in matters of conduct, both personal and social.

According to Copi (1969: 286), as cited in Ferreira (1996: 87), during the time of Plato (427–347BC) and Aristotle (384–322BC), philosophers were concerned not only with logic, mathematics and natural science, but also with literary criticism and aesthetics generally.

The special sciences (the term “special sciences” in this context is understood to mean specialised sciences, such as economics, psychology, sociology, political science and public management) acquired large amounts of reliable knowledge and developed their own techniques of investigation. This resulted in a split from philosophy into separate branches of learning. What has remained for philosophy, in addition to questions of conduct and value, has itself become a philosophical issue (Ferreira 1996: 87).

Copi (1969: 286) emphasises that the essence of philosophy is a systematic reflection upon experience in order to obtain a rational and comprehensive understanding of the universe and man’s place in it.

As cited in Ferreira (1996: 89), Hughes (1987: 2) holds that, since developing as autonomous disciplines, the social sciences have tended to re-examine their philosophical foundations only during periods of crisis, when familiar and trusted methods no longer seem to justify the faith originally invested in them (Hughes 1987: 11). Understanding of this concept is necessary within the context of development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

According to Hughes (1987: 11), philosophy will always attempt to explain phenomena conceived in terms of the basic concepts that characterise a discipline, whatever it may be.

Hughes (1987: 13) cites the philosopher Locke, who argued that philosophy simply aims to clear away obstacles that lie in the way of knowledge, such as vague speech, muddled terms,
imprecise notions and the like. Philosophers such as Descartes, Leibnitz and Hegel concerned themselves with metaphysics (the study of existence, of the most general categories that can be used in describing what exists: universal and particular, space and time, substance and attribute, necessity and causality). They saw philosophy as being concerned with constructing the whole of human knowledge into logically connected systems (Copi 1969: 286).

Hughes (1987: 14) also refers to the lack of consensus within the social sciences as to whether they are sciences, pseudosciences, immature sciences, multiparadigmatic sciences or moral sciences. Since their appearance on the intellectual scene, they have failed to produce analyses of social life as convincing as those produced by the natural sciences of the material world.

According to Carpenter (2005), Western philosophy is generally considered to have begun in ancient Greece as speculation about the underlying nature of the physical world. In its earliest form it was indistinguishable from natural science. The writings of the earliest philosophers no longer exist, except for a few fragments cited by Aristotle in the 4th century BC and by other writers of later times.

The philosophy of Aristotle, also known as Aristotelian philosophy, had the most profound influence on Western and current sociocultural thinking and behaviour.

According to Carpenter (2005), Aristotle, who began studying at Plato’s Academy at the age of 17 in 367 BC, was the most illustrious pupil of Plato, and ranks with his teacher among the most profound and influential thinkers of the Western world. After studying for many years at the Academy, Aristotle became the tutor of Alexander the Great. He later returned to Athens to found the Lyceum, a school that, like Plato’s Academy, remained for centuries as one of the great centres of learning in Greece. In his lectures at the Lyceum, Aristotle defined the basic concepts and principles of many of the sciences, such as logic, biology, physics and psychology. In founding the science of logic, he developed the theory of deductive inference – a process for drawing conclusions from accepted premises by means of logical reasoning. His theory is exemplified by the syllogism (a deductive argument having two premises and a conclusion), and a set of rules for scientific method.

In his metaphysical theory, Aristotle criticised Plato’s Theory of Forms. Aristotle argued that forms could not exist by themselves but only in particular things, which are composed of both form and matter. He understood substances as matter organised by a particular form. Humans beings, for example, are composed of flesh and blood arranged to shape arms, legs and the other parts of the body (Carpenter 2005).

Nature for Aristotle, according to Carpenter (2005), is an organic system of things whose forms make it possible to arrange them into classes comprising species and genera. Each species, he believed, has a form, a purpose and mode of development in terms of which it can be defined. The aim of science is to define the essential forms, purposes and modes of development of all species, and to arrange them in their natural order in accordance with their complexities of form, the main levels being the inanimate, the vegetative, the animal and the rational. The soul, for Aristotle, is the form of the body, and humans beings, whose rational soul is a higher form than the souls of other terrestrial species, are the highest species of perishable things. The heavenly bodies, composed of an imperishable substance, or ether, and moved eternally in perfect circular motion by God, are still higher in the order of nature. This hierarchical classification of nature was adopted by many Christian, Jewish and Muslim theologians in the Middle Ages as a view of nature consistent with their religious beliefs (Carpenter 2005).

Aristotle’s political and ethical philosophy similarly developed out of a critical examination of Plato’s principles. The standards of personal and social behaviour, according to Aristotle, must be found in the scientific study of the natural tendencies of individuals and societies rather than in a heavenly or abstract realm of pure forms. Less insistent therefore than Plato on a rigorous conformity to absolute principles, Aristotle regarded ethical rules as practical guides to a happy
and well-rounded life. His emphasis on happiness, as the active fulfilment of natural capacities, expressed the attitude toward life held by cultivated Greeks of his time. In political theory, Aristotle agreed with Plato that a monarchy ruled by a wise king would be the ideal political structure, but he also recognised that societies differ in their needs and traditions, and believed that a limited democracy is usually the best compromise. In his theory of knowledge, Aristotle rejected the Platonic doctrine that knowledge is innate, and insisted that it can be acquired only by generalisation from experience. He interpreted art as a means of pleasure and intellectual enlightenment rather than an instrument of moral education. His analysis of Greek tragedy has served as a model of literary criticism (Carpenter 2005).

The above discussion has particular reference to the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective in that all systems and procedures for human resource management have to be founded on acceptable philosophical, theoretical and normative principles.

With the above exposition and brief discussion of the concept of philosophy, the focus will now shift to a philosophical basis for public management as the mother discipline of the concepts that are the subjects of this research, namely development of a human resources framework for tourism from a normative and theoretical perspective.

A PHILOSOPHICAL BASIS FOR PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

Stillman (1976: 3–4) argues that it is pointless to pin down an exact definition of public management (the discipline), simply because the many variables and complexities of public management (the practice) make almost every administrative situation a unique event, eluding any highly systematised categorisation. This difficulty is manifested by the suggestion of different phases and paradigms in the development of the study field of public management (Hanekom 1988: 70–79).

Any discipline develops from numerous variables existing in a state of ignorance and chaos of which selected salient elements (variables) have been identified and isolated, and categorised as a model illustrating and illuminating the composition, place, role and functions of such given variables in order to bring about knowledge and understanding of their interrelationships with each other and with external and internal forces. Such variables had to be painstakingly studied and laboriously linked by using theoretical and normative models that facilitated understanding of the subject field, the discipline itself and the various relationships between the proposed elements (variables) contained in the models in order to be able to use such models as points of departure for studying the discipline and its implications from normative, theoretical and practical points of departure.

A case in point, particularly from the perspective of developing a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective, would be Easton’s dynamic response model of a political system (also known as the analytical input-output transformation model), described in Easton (1979: 29–30) and which emphasises need generation from existing dysfunctional external environments. These external environments should be regarded as dysfunctional by nature and therefore hostile to the well-being of the community. Examples are a basically unfriendly health environment, which needs goal-setting to change from a dysfunctional to a functional environment. The same is possible with the education environment, with the great need for education in South Africa and the need to set goals to alleviate that situation. Another example is the political environment that constantly needs to be redefined in terms of voter interests. There is also the constitutional environment, the statutory environment, the cultural environment, the religious environment, the physical environment and infinite numbers of others (Easton 1979: 29–30) (illustration of Easton’s model below).

What needs to be understood is that external environments are continually threatening the survival of society, and it is necessary, on an ongoing basis, for all organisations to set goals to
avert potentially hazardous situations within given environments, and to pursue those goals effectively and efficiently.

The needs generated by the dysfunctional external environments serve as the “inputs” into the system. The generated needs can only be satisfied by goal-setting, the eventual achieving of which will be considered the “outputs”.

It should be understood that, within the context of development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective and from a systems perspective, external environments are regarded as inherently hostile to the survival of the organisation, as are certain elements of the internal environment (see figure 1). Goals need to be set to meet the challenges posed by the hostile external and internal environments, weaknesses have to be recognised and opportunities utilised in order to change hostile (dysfunctional) environments into advantageous (functional) ones. This can only be achieved by applying a SWOT analysis utilising a conversion mechanism, such as a management process, explained and illustrated elsewhere in this article.

![A theoretical basis for managing human resources in tourism](image)

**Figure 1: A systems model for public management.**

*Source: Adapted from Easton (1979: 29–30) and Ferreira (1996: 401).*

The process of need satisfaction, which, according to Easton (1979: 29–40) starts with given dysfunctional external environments, has to move through an internal environment, consisting of different value systems, ethical foundations, or foundations and guidelines, and which serve as “filters” to maintain norms and standards in terms of the current body politic, prevailing community values and legal requirements, particularly those pertaining to law. The process then moves through a conversion mechanism, also known as an administrative (or management) process, consisting of various functions (processes) that have to be utilised in order to enable the institutions faced with the task of satisfying the needs, to proceed with the various steps of the enabling process. It should be noted that the conversion process can have various forms and may consist of different approaches. The actual nature of the process depends on the particular situation at hand and the preference of the policy-makers with regard to determining which particular enabling process can be utilised to achieve the desired goal (Easton 1979: 29–40).
After the goal has been achieved and the need accordingly been satisfied, feedback occurs to the original environment to check whether the need has been optimally satisfied, for example the provision of primary healthcare facilities where those previously did not exist (Easton 1979: 29–40).

Should the goal have been achieved, feedback will occur to the original environment (which was the original dysfunctional external environment) and which will now be found to have changed to a new external environment and which, in turn, will generate new needs that have to be satisfied by goal-setting and the achievement thereof. An example is a student who arrives at a higher educational institution with a school-leaving certificate. At that stage, he or she regards this certificate as dysfunctional, hence the application to improve the qualifications to a degree level. Once the degree has been obtained, that new higher qualification becomes a new external educational environment. It is possible that the student will then regard the degree as dysfunctional for his or her purposes, and a new goal will then be set, that of an Honours degree. Should the decision be made to pursue the new goal, the process commences again. Again the existing external environment will be regarded as dysfunctional and will then serve a departure point to achieve the new goal. Again the process has to proceed through the internal environments (the normative foundations) that will serve as the watchdog to ensure that the value systems of society have been adhered to in the process of reaching the goal. Simultaneously, the chosen conversion model will be employed as the enabling process to bring about the necessary change. It is possible to use different processes or models for the conversion. When the goal is achieved and the Honours degree has been obtained, feedback will occur to the previous external environment, which was the degree, changing it to the Honours degree. The process can now start again if it is felt that another higher qualification is desired, and it can be repeated indefinitely (Easton 1979: 29–40).

The above process takes place for all external environments, depending on the level of improvement that is aspired to. The perceived degree of dysfunctionality in terms of the needs that are generated, coupled with the available resources, will be the deciding factor that will determine the extent of goal-setting, the values and norms that will be adhered to, the conversion process which will be used to change the dysfunctional situation to a functional one with the concomitant achievement of the goal, with the option of repeating the cycle, as desired.

Understanding of a system for management of human resources in the context of tourism is essential to ensure development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

A NORMATIVE THEORY FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

When literature on human resources procedures is researched, it is found that in spite of the phenomenon of human resources being mentioned regularly in literature on personnel management, extensive theoretical information regarding human resources is relatively scarce compared to other facets of training and development. This observation is substantiated by Glueck (1974: 231) when he states that human resources has not been studied a great deal.

In the paragraphs that follow, the views of a number of human resource management theorists will be expounded, against the background of development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

Erasmus et al. (2005: 41) write that before the Industrial Revolution, income of people was generated mostly with home crafts or agriculture. With the growth and development of technology, manufacturing concerns were established, also known as factories, where people could work and earn a living.

Erasmus et al. (2005: 42) provide an example of an employer who spent company profits on efforts to improve the living and working conditions of the labour force. These efforts included
building villages for the workers to live close to their place of employment, schooling facilities for the workers’ children, and hygienic working conditions in his cotton-mill factories.

During the period 1880 to 1920, according to Erasmus et al. (2005: 42), a number of evolutionary developments took place with regard to the growth and development of human resource management. Among those were a growth in the availability of factory-type work, efforts to improve the general welfare of factory workers and the development of a scientific management approach to improve levels of production, particularly with respect to factory work.

In the above context, as explained by Erasmus et al. (2005: 42), FW Taylor, who is generally regarded as the “father” of the scientific management approach, conducted research into the improvement of workers’ output and productivity rates. Taylor’s theories were supported (by, for example, Gilbreth and Grant), while knowledge was added by researchers such as Munsterburg, who published a book on industrial efficiency in 1913 (Erasmus et al. 2005: 42).

During the late 1920s and early 1930s, the Hawthorne experiments were conducted at the Western Electric Company by Elton Mayo from Harvard University and his colleagues to increase production at that factory. This research emphasised the human relations context (Erasmus et al. 2005: 42) and paved the way for a better understanding of the human element in human resource management.

Erasmus et al. (2005: 43) explain that subsequent to increased awareness of the human element in human resource management that emanated from the earlier studies, various behavioural scientists influenced the human relations school of thought. Included in those were Maslow (1954), Argyris (1957), McGregor (1960) and Herzberg. McGregor became known for his X and Y management theories, which distinguished between authoritative and democratic management styles.

APPROACHES TO THE PARADIGMATIC DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

Ferreira (1996: 91) cites Freysen (1988: 159), who states that a number of different viewpoints regarding the paradigmatic status of public management are entertained, based on different metaphysical premises (metaphysics: the study of existence of the most general categories that can be used in describing what exists: universal and particular, space and time, substance and attribute, necessity and causality (Copi 1969: 286) and corresponding views of science.

Freysen (1988: 159) but perhaps argues that according to realistic-empiricist metaphysical premises and an objective science perception, it may be argued that public management can or cannot have paradigmatic status. In terms of idealistic- rational metaphysical premises and a relativistic science perception, it also may be argued that public management has or does not have paradigmatic status. Freysen (1988: 159) further states that paradigmatic status in the social sciences is a subjective concept. Should that view be accepted, then, because the social sciences are subjective in that their subjects of study create their own situations, public management, being a subjective discipline, does possess a subjective paradigmatic status.

In the following section, the generic approach of Cloete (1998: 88–115) will be described, followed by the public management approach espoused by Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991: 4–10), and other related aspects will be explained, relative to development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

The generic approach

According to Cloete (1998: 88–115), administration, and by implication public management, consists of a wide-ranging set of activities or processes that can be grouped according to their respective functions. Six main generic groupings of activities/processes will be obtained on the basis of the functions of policy-making, organising, financing, staffing (personnel provision and
utilisation), determining of effective and efficient work procedures, and determining of effective and efficient control measures, which can be subdivided into two main categories, namely checking (controlling), and accountability to ensure that the original target will be reached (achieved). Management is therefore a collection of activities/processes, and each of the six main groups mentioned above has to be carried out in full to achieve any objective (regardless of whether it is a tangible product or a social state) through action. This implies that administration is not merely a concept or an idea, but a social phenomenon consisting of mental effort and other activities. It is this state of affairs that makes administration an enabling activity that functions within a group context (Cloete 1986: 2–3).

In practice, the intention is that a taxonomy (systematising) of the activities is usually undertaken. Taxonomy is regarded as the first step in the scientific study of a subject (Bosman et al. 1962: 1752).

The joint action referred to above means that the generic administrative activities or processes will always precede and/or accompany the functional and auxiliary activities that are concerned with producing goods or rendering services. According to Cloete (1998: 88–115), the three categories of activities can be illustrated as follows:

**Table 1: The generic approach**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Administrative activities and processes</th>
<th>Functional activities</th>
<th>Auxiliary services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy-making</td>
<td>For example:</td>
<td>Data processing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing</td>
<td>Building roads</td>
<td>Undertaking public opinion surveys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organising</td>
<td>Nursing patients</td>
<td>Collecting and analysing statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staffing</td>
<td>Providing postal services</td>
<td>Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determination and improvement of work processes</td>
<td>Educating scholars and students</td>
<td>Decision-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlling (checking and rendering account)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The six main groups mentioned under “administrative activities and processes” cannot be separated in practice.

The various activities/processes in question are usually considered and undertaken simultaneously. For example, when an objective is being set and “policy is being made”, cognisance will have to be taken of what can theoretically as well as in practice be expected of the other processes of administration and management, in this case organising, financing, staffing, determining of work procedures and exercising of control, to ensure that the objective is achieved. Thereafter, when the organisational arrangements are being considered (when organising occurs), it will be necessary to attend to the availability of funds and to the personnel needed to implement the action programme. Each of the aforementioned main groups of generic processes in the cycle of administration constitutes a complex field of activity which becomes even more complex as the extent and size of the operation expand Cloete (1998: 88–115).

**The public management approach**

As the principal advocate of the public management approach, Fox et al. (1991: 2) describe public management as a system of structures and processes, operating within a particular society as environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy, and the efficient execution of the formulated policy. The concepts “structures”, “processes”, “governmental policy” and “efficient execution” should, for the purposes of this discussion, be understood as variables.

The model of Fox et al. (1991: 3–6) takes as its point of departure a perceived general environment. This general environment consists of various subenvironments, for instance political, social, economic, technological and cultural, which are only examples of possible
environments. Those mentioned are taken as being representative of most facets of contemporary human societal existence and its need-generating elements.

Fox et al. (1991: 3–4) show a specific environment within the general environment that consists of suppliers, competitors, regulators and consumers. The interaction between the components of the general environment and the factors of the specific environment are regulated by certain functions, skills and applications.

The above model can be transposed as a framework for the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

Fox et al. (1991: 5) identify five possible enabling functions or processes that can serve as a conversion mechanism for goal achievement, namely policy-making, planning, organising, leadership and motivation, and control and evaluation. These functions are situation bound and could change as the needs of the particular environment fluctuate.

The POLC model

Bennett (2000: 108–128) describes an approach to management in terms of a basic planning, organising, leading and control (POLC) model, which is explained in terms of the variables planning, the planning process, decision-making, organising, responsibility and authority, coordination, delegation, leading, leadership, motivation, motivation theories, disciplining, communication, formal organisational communication, and controlling, including setting of standards, measuring of performance and revisiting original plans and decisions for quality control and possible adjustment to stay on course towards achieving the vision and the mission of the organisation.

Bennett’s (2000: 108–128) POLC model can be illustrated as per table 2.

Table 2: Bennett’s POLC model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLANNING</th>
<th>ORGANISING</th>
<th>LEADING</th>
<th>CONTROL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning process</td>
<td>Responsibility and authority</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Setting standards of performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>Coordination</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Measuring performance</td>
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<td>Delegation</td>
<td>Motivation theories</td>
<td>Evaluating deviations</td>
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<td>Disciplining</td>
<td>Rectifying deviations</td>
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<td>Communication</td>
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<td>Formal organisational communication</td>
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<td>Improving communication</td>
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The model proposed by Bennett (2000: 108–128) facilitates understanding of the management process, which is inherently complex, particularly from a normative and theoretical point of view. The model enables managers to apply a structured process along definite steps along a continuum, such as planning, organising, leading and controlling for the purpose of implementing human resources policies effectively and efficiently for the greater good of the organisation, the employees and the clients at large.

OVERVIEW OF THE PUBLIC POLICY PROCESS AS PART OF NORMATIVE GUIDELINES TO ACHIEVE, MAINTAIN AND ENHANCE THE GENERAL WELFARE OF SOCIETY

As the fundamental point of departure for developing, proposing and implementing a policy framework for human resource management in tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective, this section has particular relevance to this study.

In government, policy is made by politicians and officials in a cooperative and interactive manner. Fox, Bayat and Ferreira (2006: 107–118) hold that policy-making takes place on different levels and spheres, particularly in the case of South Africa, on, respectively, the political, the
executive and the administrative levels and in central, provincial and local government spheres (Fox et al. 2006: 107–118).

The following paragraphs are devoted to various aspects of public policy-making. This is regarded as particularly relevant to the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

Public policy and policy implementation explained

Fox et al. (1991: 25–42) identify the following functions of public policy:

- Public policy is policy adopted by government role-players, while non-governmental role-players, such as interest groups, can also influence the formulation and development of policy.
- Public policy is purposive or goal orientated, therefore action is directed rather than randomly selected.
- Public policy consists of a series of decisions taken jointly by politicians and/or officials rather than by individuals.
- Public policy is what governments do (taking steps to improve the general welfare of the community), as in, for example, the Health Policy, the Education Policy or the Social Welfare Policy (Fox et al. 2006: 107–118).

Public policy can be seen, in the light of the above, as a desired course of action that is aimed at the realisation of public goals and objectives, and which is made public by means of legislation (Fox et al. 1991: 25–42).

According to Fox et al. (2006: 107–118), the policy process can be illustrated as follows:

- Agenda setting.
- Policy formulation.
- Policy adoption.
- Policy implementation.
- Policy evaluation.

Ismail et al. (1997: 153–155) provide the following checklist for adopting public policies:

- Political feasibility.
- Operational feasibility.
- Technical feasibility.
- Financial feasibility.
- Organisational feasibility
- Personnel implications.

According to De Coning (in Cloete & Wissink 2000: 9), in the South African context, and in the context of planning in the previous political dispensation, the relationship between planning, programming and policy management has been changing rapidly. The programme management approach emphasises the programme approach, a sequential arrangement which entails a procedural element and a degree of ordering and/or coordinating projects, actions and aspects which are similar and interrelated (Fox et al. 2006: 107–118).

The programme approach stems from the assumption that the impact of a programme of interventions is greater and more meaningful than a number of isolated and ad hoc interventions (De Coning in Cloete & Wissink 2000: 9).

The abovementioned approach is multifaceted, multisectoral and multifunctional. For example, development organisations such as the Development Bank of Southern Africa typically use a regional approach to target development assistance with regard to geographical areas, sectoral composition and nature of the assistance. A programmed management approach in regional contexts has become necessary for this purpose and usually includes a developmental perspective with a SWOT analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) and other potential areas
for intervention), development support strategies (potential support strategies by all role-players to address development needs) and specific support programmes (specific projects and programmes to support development) (De Coning in Cloete and Wissink 2000: 9).

In the above context, Wissink (in Bayat & Meyer (1994: 291) argues that public policy analysis is an activity that has developed in response to the dire need for an improved public policy process as a result of the increased demand for knowledge in policy-making and as a means to discern and utilise information applicable to policy issues (Bayat & Meyer 1994: 291).

Cloete (in Bayat & Meyer 1994: 314) states that the applied nature of policy analysis, as a component of the policy process, is different from the original conception of an academic discipline. He poses the question of how the practical recognition and use of policy analysis can be maximised during policy implementation. Proficiency in the use of policy analysis during the full policy cycle, including the policy implementation phase, can best be improved by constant practice and training in policy matters.

According to Hanekom and Thornhill (1993: 15), there is no universally accepted or agreed-upon system that can be used for the policy-making process. It appears that a useful system should include at least the phases of goal identification, authorisation, public statement of intent, implementation and evaluation. Public policy is decided on by the legislator, in this instance parliament, and therefore public policy can be viewed as the output of the political process (Hanekom & Thornhill 1993: 15).

Policy-making is an activity that precedes the statement of a goal, and in that respect it involves thought processes and actions that include selection of the best alternatives to achieve the desired goal (Hanekom & Thornhill 1993: 47).

According to Cloete (1998: 131), political executive institutions and office-bearers have to take the initiative in the implementation of policies approved by the legislature. The relevant legislation can, for example, state what should be done, how it should be done, and where and by whom it should be done. Nevertheless, there will be many decisions that will still have to be taken to start the implementation stage. If one bears in mind that this stage of a policy consists of various activities, such as organising, financing, staffing, determining of work procedures and control mechanisms, then one can visualise what types of decisions will have to be taken to develop a political and later an administrative implementation policy (Cloete 1998: 131; Fox et al. 2006: 107–118).

Cloete (1998: 130) argues that usually when policy is formulated, careful thought has to be given to all possible implications that may occur during the implementation stage. It is the officials who should be aware of what all the pitfalls are and who is best equipped to predict possible effects and implications when a given policy is implemented and to explain such implications to the political rulers. It has to be pointed out, though, that officials should take care to remain completely objective. When they feel that it may be necessary to obtain information on the possible political repercussions of a party decision, they have the duty to inform the political rulers accordingly. For example, any change to the liquor trade policy would immediately affect numerous interest groups and might have widespread consequences that the political rulers should know about. The officials should then suggest to the political rulers how they should go about obtaining such information. There are, for example, various institutions that may be of assistance in formulating policy and they may wish to suggest that one of these, perhaps a commission of inquiry or a joint standing committee of parliament, should be used to investigate all possible implications of such a policy (Cloete 1998: 131). Similarly, the introduction of the non-smoking policy initially had a serious impact on the tourism and hospitality industry, which had to be given sufficient time to implement the provisions of the relevant Act.

According to Cloete and Wissink (2000: 117), it is not uncommon for academics and practitioners to differ in their interpretation of concepts such as goals, objectives, objective
statements, and activities and tasks as sub-elements of objectives. It is, therefore, essential that a clear understanding exists of the exact meaning of these terms – in particular goals and objectives – and how they differ and how to identify them (Cloete & Wissink 2000: 117).

For the purpose of policy design, according to Cloete and Wissink (2000: 117), goals are broad purposes, while objectives set forth specific aims. Goals are rarely expressed in the form of operational identifications – that is, definitions which specify the set of operations necessary to measure something – but objectives are. Statements of objectives can be linked to a period of time within which policy alternatives are expected to achieve the desired target populations in broad terms, whereas objectives define target populations specifically (Cloete & Wissink 2000: 117).

According to Cloete (1998: 132), when the policy of the government of the day and the political implementation policy have been made known, attention can be given to formulation of a third policy, namely administrative executive policy. Administrative executive policy is concerned mainly with the practical steps to give effect to the political implementation policy. Usually it is left to the officials to formulate administrative executive policy. For example, the policy of the government of the day may state that every year 2 000 houses should be provided for the poor. The political executive implementation policy may be that all the houses should be built by the Department of Public Works. The administrative executive policy may be that the houses should be built by officials of that department. As this example shows, it is often difficult to draw a clear line between each level of policy. Where the line is drawn will often depend on the viewpoint of the ministers concerned and possibly also on the viewpoint of their top officials. For example, some matters that are regarded by one minister as being part of political implementation policy may be regarded by his or her successor as being part of administrative executive policy, and vice versa. Ministers, may, in fact, even decide that some aspects of the administrative executive policy should be treated as political policy and be dealt with only by themselves and the Cabinet. The final decision depends on the personal views of ministers, and it is often a question of trust, for example whether they have complete faith in their officials, or whether they are individualists who may like to make as many decisions as possible themselves (Cloete 1998: 132).

Cloete (1998: 132) emphasises that apart from policy made at the three levels described above, decisions on various other matters of policy may still have to be taken at the level where the work has to be done. This is known as the operational level. Decisions at this level will, as a rule, be taken by supervisors and will concern matters which cannot really affect the nature of the line function, for example decisions as to whether letters to members of the public should be handwritten or typed. It will be observed that these policy directives will be confined to specific areas such as a specific office, section or division of a state department, and consequently only a small number of officials or members of the public will be affected. This level of policy-making will usually relate to routine work that can be done by supervisors at a lower level in the hierarchy (Cloete 1998: 133). Understanding of this process has particular relevance for the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

Executive functions

Montesquieu emphasised in his book *L’esprit des Lois (The Spirit of Laws)* in 1748 that the three powers of state – the legislative, executive and judicial powers – must ideally be kept separate.

In contemporary society, reference is made to the legislative institutions and the legislative functions, the executive institutions and the executive functions, and the judicial institutions and judicial functions, although the legislature has delegated legislative authority and the judiciary has delegated judicial authority to the executive institutions.

The executive functions that are performed by public officials are seen as synonymous with the functional activities, for example the work that is done by public officials (Fox et al. 2006: 107–118).

The executive functions of officials are always linked to the individual posts in an organisa-
tional structure. Owing to various factors such as the division of the work according to volume and variety, the nature of the work, and the place and level of the post in the organisational structure, executive functions of officials/employees will differ in an organisational structure, horizontally from post to post and vertically from post level to post level.

Planning
According to Fox et al. (1991: 47), in the most simple sense planning is “deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it and who is going to do it”. Planning thus bridges the gap from where one is to where one wants to go.

Fox et al. (1991: 47) argue that planning has to follow after policy-making where policy constitutes a statement of an intention to satisfy a societal need. Such planning is a set of processes which must be carried out to find the best course of action which has been identified and described with the policy statement. Policies are translated into a plan by means of the planning process where policy goals are specified as specific objectives to be attained. A programme is a proposed set of specific actions intended to implement the plan (Fox et al. 1991: 47).

Fox et al. (1991: 47) indicate the following meanings in which planning is used in a public management context:
- National context.
- Development context.
- Physical or land-use context.
- Management context.
- Budgeting planning.

According to Shafritz and Russell (2000: 302–304), any organisation’s planning horizon – the time limit of the organisational planning beyond which the future is considered too uncertain to waste time on – is an essential factor in assessing its short- and long-term viability.

According to Fox et al. (1991: 49), a number of reasons, such as the following, can be put forward to emphasise the importance of public management planning:
- Planning contributes to the effective handling of change.
- Planning provides direction.
- Planning provides a unifying framework.
- Planning provides opportunities for increased participation.
- Planning creates higher levels of predictability.
- Planning facilitates control.

Fox et al. (1991: 50) explain that the planning process can be divided into seven phases:
- Assessing the situation.
- Establishing objectives.
- Forecasting.
- Determining alternative courses of action.
- Evaluating and selecting alternatives.
- Implementing selected plans, including linking selected plans to budgets, programmes and control measures.
- Evaluating the progress of the plan in terms of the assessed needs, the stated objectives and the set control standards.

Programming
According to Starling (1993: 16–17), a programme is a major organisational objective. Government programmes are usually designed to fulfil statutory requirements by carrying out the aims of a public policy.
Starling (1993: 16–17) argues that programme management requires a thorough grasp of at least five traditional management functions that are widely accepted as planning, decision-making, organising, leading and controlling.

Starling (1993: 16–17) shows that planning defines where the organisation and its objectives want to be in future, and the steps that are contemplated to arrive at such future. He further explains that planning encapsulates problem identification as well as opportunities, generating of alternatives and selecting alternatives. This process, according to Starling, goes hand in hand with decision-making.

Following planning, Fox et al. (1991: 55), discuss programming techniques and explain that at the stage of implementing the results of planning, a number of techniques have been designed for scheduling and control purposes. These include aspects such as the Gantt chart, Critical Path Method (CPM) and Programme, Evaluation, Review Technique (PERT).

According to Nigro and Nigro (1984: 250–251), programme evaluation in government is performed not only within the administrative agencies delivering services, but also by central budget and management staff members, legislative committees, and commissions and post-auditors serving the legislature.

Nigro and Nigro (1984: 251) continue by explaining that in the line agencies, an office high up in the hierarchy reporting directly to the administrator, as in a state department of mental health, or to an assistant-secretary, as in some federal agencies, plans and coordinates the evaluation of programmes activities. It may also undertake evaluation studies, but most are made by the constituent units and field and project offices responsible for carrying out different programme activities.

Fox et al. (1991: 55) explain that the Gantt chart is a bar chart that describes progress by comparing work done against planned objectives. In a CPM chart, bars are replaced by a network or flow plan which shows how events and activities are related. In CPM and PERT charts, events, such as “start designing plans”, are shown as circles. The time-consuming elements of the programme are shown as arrows or paths connecting the circles. In this manner, a CPM chart reflects all significant facets of the programme and presents a visual illustration of its complexity. From this visual illustration a critical path reveals that the completion of the total project is dependent on the path that takes the longest time. If any activity on the critical path is delayed, the completion of total project will be delayed. However, it should be noted that delays in activities not on the critical path would not necessarily lead to delays in meeting the project deadline (Fox et al. 1991: 56).

According to Fox et al. (1991: 56), the programming process can be seen as decision stages, from problem structuring, developing strategies, finding alternatives, making the optimum choice and implementing the alternative action plan, to monitoring and evaluating the outcomes of the programme. The decision stages of the programming process and the decision-making techniques that can be used in each stage are illustrated in table 3.
Table 3: Elements of the programming process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision stages</th>
<th>Technique</th>
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<tr>
<td>Problem structuring</td>
<td>Classification analysis</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Brainstorming</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Delphi techniques</td>
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<td>Nominal group techniques</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing programme alternatives</td>
<td>Employing various theories, such as Markov analysis</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Simulation exercises</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Brainstorming</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Regression analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comparing programme alternatives</td>
<td>Feasibility assessment</td>
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<td>Sensitivity analysis</td>
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<td>Cost–benefit analysis</td>
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<td>Value critiques</td>
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<td>Making choices</td>
<td>Bayesian theory</td>
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<td>Criteria and weighted matrices</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Nominal group technique</td>
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<tr>
<td>Implementing the solution</td>
<td>Cost internalisation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>PERT, CPM and Gantt chart</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Zero-based budgeting, sunset legislation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Monitoring and evaluating the outcomes</td>
<td>Gini index/brainstorming</td>
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<td>of the chosen programme</td>
<td>Graphical and tabular displays</td>
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<td>Interrupted time-series analysis</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Control-series analysis</td>
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<td>Regression discontinuity analysis</td>
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Fox et al. (1991: 230) emphasise that decision-making tools are often used both to make optimal decisions and to overcome the factors that complicate decision-making processes.

Policy-making does not take place in a vacuum and is not only made by politicians, but refers to a cooperative, interactive partnership between politicians and officials. The complex and multidimensional nature of policy implementation invariably causes negative practical implications. This is why policy must always be regarded as flexible and constantly be subjected to review. Without a policy it will not be possible to render any public service. Policy-making is pre-eminently the thought processes relating to the nature and scope of public services. Policy is thus a vision about what must be done, and when, where and by whom services must be rendered. Policy-making is thus the setting and publication of specific objectives. The objectives that are set – as in the executive policy, for example – must be changed into a communicable format for all subordinate personnel to understand clearly. It is imperative that all officials know exactly what is expected of them and what the nature and scope of the operational functions entail. After the legislature has made an executive policy, senior officials are responsible for its implementation. This requires that specific functions be performed before any services can be rendered (Fox et al. 2006: 117–130).

A THEORY FOR DEVELOPING A HUMAN RESOURCES FRAMEWORK FOR TOURISM

Andrews (1987: 3) states that the personnel function consists of a network of functions and functional activities. These, with the aid of defined analytical methods and auxiliary aids and with the recognition of specific normative guidelines, are exercised in order to provide, utilise, remunerate, train, develop and maintain a motivated corps of personnel for the public sector.

Various authors have formulated definitions for human resource management:

Carrell and Kuzmits (1986: 3) define personnel management as “a set of programs, functions, and activities designed to maximise both personal and organisational goals”.
Ivancevich and Glueck (1989: 7) briefly define personnel/human resource management as “the function performed in organisations that facilitates the most effective use of people (employees) to achieve organisational goals and individual goals”.

Dubrin (1990: 219) defines personnel management as “staffing” with the following definition: “Staffing is the process of making sure there are the necessary human resources to achieve organisational goals . . .”. Although Dubrin’s definition omits the management (utilisation) aspect of personnel management, his organisational staffing model implies the inclusion of a management function.

Stahl (1983: 28) defines human resource management as “the performance of all managerial functions involved in planning for, recruiting, selecting, developing, utilizing, rewarding, and maximizing the potential of the human resources of an organisation”. Stahl also states that this definition was devised with private enterprise in mind, but that it could also be made applicable to the public sector.

Bearing in mind Stahl’s above comment about the universal nature of personnel management, the description of Dessler (1984: 1) also deserves mentioning here: “. . . in order to understand what personnel management is, we have to ask what it is that managers do . . .”, and “. . . most experts agree that there are five basic functions all managers perform: planning, organising, staffing, leading, and controlling. In total, they represent what is often called the management process . . .”. This is also known as the POLC process (Bennett 2000: 128).

Dessler (1984: 2) explains that the function staffing consists of the following concepts and techniques:

- Job analysis.
- Planning manpower needs and recruiting candidates.
- Orienting and training new employees.
- Wage and salary management.
- Providing incentives and benefits.
- Appraising performance
- Face-to-face communicating.
- Developing managers.

During 1990, the erstwhile South African Board for Personnel Practice (SABPP) had, in cooperation with the Electricity Supply Commission (ESCOM) published a Generic Competency Model for Human Resource Practitioners with a notable exposition of their view of what personnel management entails. The Board viewed personnel management as consisting of four components adding up to a competence value. Table 4 illustrates the Board’s Generic Competency Model for Human Resource Practitioners (SABPP 1990: 3–5).

The model shows a useful distribution of salient human resource management variables that could be universally applied, particularly in the field of tourism, in the context of proposing a framework for human resource management in tourism from a normative and theoretical point of departure.

While any such model would not be able to make provision for all possible variables pertaining to a framework for human resource management in tourism from a normative and theoretical point of departure, the model would, nevertheless be useful in terms of bringing about improved understanding of particular dynamics of human resource management, which, for the purposes of this research, have to be understood in terms of its normative and theoretical underpinnings.
Table 4: SABPP Competency Model for Personnel Practitioners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COLUMN 1 EDUCATION KNOWLEDGE BASE</th>
<th>COLUMN 2 TRAINING SKILLS BASE</th>
<th>COLUMN 3 APPLICATION EXPERIENTIAL BASE</th>
<th>COLUMN 4 VALUES – BEHAVIOURAL BASE</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social sciences</td>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>Employee level deployment</td>
<td>Professional</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 Industrial psychology</td>
<td>1 Research methodology</td>
<td>1 Recruitment</td>
<td>1 Systemic thinking</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 Industrial sociology</td>
<td>2 Measurement</td>
<td>2 Selection</td>
<td>2 Measurement of human resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 Industrial law/labour law</td>
<td>3 Assessment</td>
<td>3 Career management</td>
<td>3 Objectivity</td>
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<td>4 Systems design</td>
<td>4 Termination</td>
<td>4 Judgement</td>
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<td>5 Group process</td>
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<td>5 Innovation</td>
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<td>6 Mentoring</td>
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<td>6 Assertiveness</td>
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<td>7 Consulting</td>
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<td>7 Accountability</td>
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<tr>
<td>Business Sciences</td>
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<td>8 Integrity</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 Business management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>9 Confidentiality</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 Economics</td>
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<td>10 Flexibility</td>
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<td>6 Accounting</td>
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<td>7 Statistics</td>
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<td>8 Computer systems</td>
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<td>Performance development</td>
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<td>17 Design</td>
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<td>Employee level deployment</td>
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<tr>
<td>18 Induction/human resources</td>
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<td>19 On-the-job training</td>
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<td>20 Off-the-job training</td>
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<td>21 Performance assessment</td>
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<td>22 Developing counselling</td>
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<td>23 Job advancement</td>
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<td>24 Educational assistance</td>
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<tr>
<td>APPLICATION EXPERIENTIAL BASE (CONTINUED FROM COLUMN 3)</td>
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<td>Group level</td>
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<td>Intragroup functioning</td>
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<td>25 Team development</td>
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<td>26 Conflict management</td>
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<td>27 Participation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intergroup functioning</td>
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<td>28 Matrix</td>
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<td>29 Cross-cultural environments</td>
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<td>30 IR structures</td>
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<tr>
<td>31 Trade union relationships</td>
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<tr>
<td>Source: SABPP (1990: 3–5).</td>
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</table>
The above units of personnel management, according to SABPP, represent a cross-section of what personnel managers (human resource practitioners) should be occupied with in terms of their personnel management function.

From the quoted definitions and descriptions of personnel management (also referred to as human resource management), Andrews (1988: 16) describes at least four distinctive requirements for the effective execution of personnel management functions that can be identified:

- Staff have to be provided.
- Staff have to be maintained.
- Staff have to be trained, developed and evaluated.
- Staff have to be effectively utilised.

Andrews (1988: 16) describes these requirements as the functional activities of the personnel function. The following is a brief description of the four components:

- **Provision of personnel**
  According to Andrews (1988: 16), the provision of personnel “… is made possible by executing the processes of human resource planning, position determination and job classification, recruitment, selection and placement”.

- **Maintenance of personnel**
  Once the personnel has been provided via provision of the personnel function, steps have to be taken to maintain the presence of the appointed human resources. Andrews (1988: 157) mentions “compensation packages” that can be construed as to include both a salary and various service conditions. Of these Andrews (1988: 159) includes certain ergonomic factors, such as an attractive work environment.

- **Training, development and development of personnel**
  Stahl (1983: iv) groups the issue of staff development and training under the heading “developing top performance”. According to Stahl (1983: 275), training and development of personnel is the very essence of supervision.
  
  Fox et al. (1991: 77) define training as the process by which job-related skills and knowledge are taught. In the same reference he mentions the term “accultivation”, and defines that as the process by which organisational norms are acquired. The phenomenon of the acquisition of organisational norms as defined by Fox et al. (1991: 77) pertains well to developing a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.
  
  Training is, according to Holden (1986: 231), the most important process to ensure organisational effectiveness. Training is also necessary for the fulfilment of employee potential. Holden (1986: 231) cites four elements involved in the training process:
  
  - Social evolution.
  - Legal mandates.
  - Maximising performance.
  - Prolonging employee service.

Regarding social evolution as the first element, Holden states that in a changing environment the organisation must acknowledge the obsolescence of old approaches to training and training programmes. Not only must they be designed for new employees, but management must be prepared to retrain senior officers constantly (Holden 1986: 232).

As the second element Holden (1986: 233) regards legal mandates as of utmost importance for public employees in the execution of their duties. Officials should be aware of legal implications concerning their work, as well as the cost of improper performance.

Maximising performance is the third element of training that Holden (1986: 233) discusses. He emphasises that the best reason for training is to teach employees discretion and judgement.
Ultimately a good training programme does far more than to prepare employees for the job; it socialises them into the ideology and values of the organisation. This aspect is regarded as critical within the framework of a tourism environment.

Regarding the fourth element, prolonging employee service, Holden (1986: 234) refers to a problem of public service employment, namely employee turnover. Large amounts of money are spent on training officials for their post. When a competent employee resigns, a vacuum is created that cannot be filled before the training and experience are combined to provide another employee capable of competent performance. When these elements of training, as expounded by Holden, are considered, it can be inferred that the necessary attitudes that have to be cultivated in the employees within the organisational structure will have to take place via the medium of training.

As most individuals are already equipped with certain values and norms, human resources procedures would be essential in order to ensure that the values and norms whereby the organisational goals can be most expeditiously achieved are transferred to employees and officials not only as soon as possible after the commencement of service, but also as part of a continuous process of training throughout the period of employment.

**Utilisation of personnel**

The inerral is made that once personnel have been provided via the personnel provision process, maintained with acceptable compensation packages, trained, developed and effectively evaluated, a process of optimal utilisation of personnel has to follow to ensure that the work is carried out effectively and efficiently.

Andrews (1988: 19) regards optimal utilisation of personnel as possible through transfers and promotion, discipline and punishment, and guidance and motivation.

While a number of authors have put forward their own particular models for human resource management, it should be accepted that no one model will suffice to make provision for all possible situations that may be encountered in the process of human resource management. Bearing in mind the situational nature of public management and the similar situation of its subordinate components, of which human resource management is one, any models that are used for human resource management should be continuously subjected to review and scrutiny to determine whether that particular model is still applicable under the prevailing circumstances.

**CLOETE’S GENERIC ADMINISTRATIVE MODEL FOR MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES**

Another example of a model for the management of human resources is the one by Cloete (1975:7), which is depicted in table 5

<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The administrative process – policy-making, organising, financing, staffing (HRM), determining of work methods and procedures and control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auxiliary processes – research, legal services, record keeping, public relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource management (staffing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisioning of human resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post creation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Recruitment</td>
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<td>Placement</td>
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<td>Promotion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Termination of service</td>
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</table>

Source: Cloete (1975: 7).

Cloete’s model (1998: 214), is a classic example of traditional human resource management functions. This model is useful in various human resource management environments and could
also apply to the development of a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

OTHER VIEWS
According to Dessler (1981: 223), human resources means providing new employees with basic information about the employer, information that they need to perform their jobs satisfactorily. He further states that human resources is one component of the employer’s socialisation process, which is an ongoing process that involves instilling in all employees the prevailing attitudes, standards, values and patterns of behaviour that are expected by the organisation and its departments. (Dessler 1984: 223).

Cuming (1986: 183) states that human resources training is carried out in order to help recruits to an organisation overcome their sense of strangeness, secure acceptance, and develop in them a sense of belonging. A large proportion of labour turnover occurs during the early weeks of employment, mainly because no effort has been made to make the newcomer feel at home. The content of such human resources should be of common interest to all newcomers, no matter how junior or how senior they may be (Cuming 1986: 184).

CONCLUSION
This article briefly investigated, in a funnel approach, theories of the science and discipline of public management, human resource management, and the management of human resources procedures in the context of developing a human resources policy framework for tourism from a theoretical and normative perspective.

A well-known input-output transformational systems model, as adapted from the model of a political system espoused by Easton (1979: 29–30), was explained as an example of a funnel approach, where one is able to generate a particular supposition about a given matter, field, aspect, approach or viewpoint from the broader elements, which will encompass a number of sub-elements which, as part of the whole, will complete the understanding of the whole systems model, arguing from the broader generalities (the top of the funnel) to the specifics at the bottom, narrower, focused part of the funnel.

A brief explanation of the term “philosophy” was given, followed by an exposition of viewpoints on the paradigmatic status of the discipline of public management. This was followed by a description of the various theoretical approaches to the subject of management and management theory. Thereafter followed a description of the evolution of human resource management theories as well as the critical need for and impact of training within the tourism environment.

REFERENCES


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RESEARCHING THE CONTRIBUTION OF FOREIGN TOURISTS TO THE ECONOMY OF THE CAPE TOWN METROPOLE

R Abrahams*

ABSTRACT
The aim of this paper is to investigate to what extent tourists, whether from overseas or from other African countries, contribute towards the economy while visiting Cape Town and the Western Cape. As many of these tourists have different purposes for visiting, they will spend money on different things. However, in the literature review, the researcher states that the main purpose for travel to the Western Cape is for holidaying and to visit friends and relatives, a result which emerges from the responses of the research population.

The researcher discusses various issues relating to who benefits from tourism and what can be done to generate tourism revenue to improve the standard of living of those less-fortunate individuals living in the poorer communities. Here the researcher will also raise issues as to what the government is doing regarding local communities, and if the benefits are filtering through to these communities. In the literature, the researcher discusses certain projects that have been implemented, such as job creation initiatives. However, this paper questions whether these objectives will be realised, and whether the disadvantaged communities will benefit from the local economic development projects.

The paper will also examine opportunities for outsourcing and business linkage development in South Africa’s tourism economy.

INTRODUCTION
Tourism is frequently justified on the basis of its potential contribution to economic development. However, it is understood that tourism can help to reduce the immense economic gap between both developed and underdeveloped countries and regions, thus ensuring a stable increase of both economic and social development in those particular countries or regions (WTTO 2005). Therefore, tourism has the potential to provide growth and to assist in poverty alleviation as well as job creation.

According to Bloch (2000), about 60 years ago tourism had an influence on national economies. Research demonstrated that, depending on the inwards or outwards direction of tourist flows, tourism would have both positive and negative impacts upon the quantity of national income. Therefore, tourism will firstly bring about the redistribution of national income by dividing the world into tourist-generating and tourist-receiving countries, regions and destinations. Secondly, it leads to the redistribution of income between both sectors and companies within the economy. The fact that tourism consumption differs from personal consumption must also be borne in mind.

Ever since, many tourism analysts have studied the different so-called economic impacts of tourism, with the tourism multiplier being the most common one. Depending on the tourism context, other economic impacts presume more or less importance. When looking at less-developed countries, for example, tourism is dependent on foreign currency as a potential generator. On the contrary, deflation and inflation consequences remain somewhat neglected in tourism economic studies.
The purpose of this paper is to investigate the contribution of tourists to the economy of the Cape Town Metropole. This will focus specifically on international visitors, but will include domestic visitors.

OVERVIEW OF TOURISM IN THE WESTERN CAPE AND CAPE TOWN

The Western Cape province, home of the Stellenbosch winelands, is currently the South African province with the highest tourism growth rate and overall market share. Table 1 represents tourism facts and figures in South Africa and the Western Cape.

Table 1: Tourism in South Africa and the Western Cape

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism in South Africa</th>
<th>Western Cape province</th>
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<tr>
<td>In 2000, the value was estimated at R90.4 billion, to which overseas visitors had contributed 25.9%. Almost level with gold, tourism was the second-largest earner of foreign currency for South Africa.</td>
<td>The value is estimated at R15.4 billion per annum (R7.2 billion from overseas and R8.2 billion from domestic visitors).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The projected growth is 11.6% per annum to 2010.</td>
<td>By 2010, the projected growth is to R34.7 billion at current prices: overseas R22 billion and domestic R12.7 billion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism contributes 8.8% to GDP, which is expected to grow to 10.3% of GDP by 2010.</td>
<td>The contribution of the regional economy is estimated to be between 9% and 13%.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In 1998, South Africa received 1.5 million overseas visitors, plus 5.7 million visitors from Africa. Therefore, 24.5 million bed-nights were sold to overseas visitors per annum.</td>
<td>During 1998, there were 830,000 overseas visitors: 6.1 million bed-nights were sold to domestic and 8.5 million to international tourists per annum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With a growth of 12.2% per annum, overseas visitors had grown to 2.2 million by 2000 and to 3.1 million in 2005.</td>
<td>The target is to increase the number of international visitors to three million by 2010.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 820,000 people are employed in the sector, with projected growth to 1.25 million in 2010, comprising 9.3% of all jobs.</td>
<td>Nine of the 15 national tourism attractions of South Africa are in the Western Cape. The province has a 28% share of the national market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64.5% of the share of the continent is accounted for by South Africa, Tunisia, Morocco and Zimbabwe, with southern Africa accounting for 30%.</td>
<td>Source: Western Cape Tourist Board 2007.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

According to the Western Cape Tourism Board (2001), tourism is estimated to contribute R15.4 billion per annum, i.e. R7.2 billion from overseas tourists and R8.2 billion from domestic visitors, to the local economy of the Western Cape. By 2010 it is projected that income from tourism will more than double to R34.7 billion, of which R22 billion will be derived from overseas tourists, and R12.7 billion from domestic tourists. The contribution of tourism to the regional economy is estimated at between 9% and 13%.

In 2002, the Western Cape received 1.4 million foreign visitors, of which 976,000 were overseas visitors (non-African) and about 40,000 were from the African continent, arriving by both land and air. Therefore, 71% of all foreign visitors are not initially from other African countries but are mostly European (just under 50%) and US residents. Of all visitors to South Africa, 53% visit the Western Cape (Western Cape Tourism Board 2007).

In the Western Cape, more bed-nights were sold to international visitors than in any other province, and of the 12 million bed-nights sold to tourists in the Western Cape, 8.9 million were to overseas tourists. While 32% of all foreign bed-nights were spent in hotels, the other 37% were shared among guesthouses, B&Bs, resorts, self-catering establishments, game lodges and hostels. Overall, the UK and Germany account for the two largest visitor groups, where Europeans were responsible for just under 50% of all bed-nights (Western Cape Tourism Board 2007).

During 2002, international tourists spent approximately R17.3 billion in the Western Cape, to which overseas visitors contributed the most (R12.7 billion). They spent 43% on accommodation, 20% on transport, 20% on recreation and entertainment, and 17% on food and beverages. During this time the Western Cape had the highest length of stay of all South Africans provinces, with overseas visitors spending on average 9.1 days in the province, whereas African air visitors spent about 13.8 days and African land visitors 6.5 days. In the Western Cape the average hotel occupancy was 66%, compared to 59% for South Africa as a whole (Western Cape Tourism Board 2007).
The most successful destination in South Africa was Cape Town, charging significantly higher room rates in comparison to Johannesburg, Pretoria and Durban. During 2001 and 2002, foreign arrivals on direct international flights to Cape Town increased by 20%, resulting in a significant seat capacity increase since September 2002 (Western Cape Tourism Board 2007).

With a 12.5% share of the total market, the Western Cape is the fifth most popular destination for domestic tourism after Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo and the Eastern Cape, with 55% of domestic tourists in the Western Cape originating from within the province (Western Cape Tourism Board 2007). In 2002, of all domestic trips to the Western Cape, the majority visited Cape Town (44%), the Garden Route (16.4%), the Overberg (8.1%), the Breede River (7.6%), the West Coast (6.6%), and the winelands (5.9%). In 2001, the average expenditure per capita for all types of domestic overnight trips to South Africa was R437 billion, where 42% was spent on transport, 22% on accommodation, 24% on food, 8% on entertainment and 5% on gifts. Of all the provinces in South Africa, the Western Cape had the highest average expenditure per domestic tourist (Western Cape Tourism Board 2007).

According to Cape Town Routes Unlimited’s Western Cape Tourism Trends Report, during the first quarter of 2006 (January to March), there were 2 017 090 international arrivals in South Africa, of which 25% visited the Western Cape. From the first quarter in 2005, international arrivals to the Western Cape have increased by 7.99% and the number of bed-nights spent by overseas visitors in the Western Cape has increased by 2.7%, bringing the total number of bed-nights spent by overseas visitors during 2005 in the Western Cape to 5.54 million.

The first quarter of 2006 recorded over two million international arrivals to South Africa, showing a 12% growth since the first quarter of 2005, with most originating from Lesotho (489 034), followed by Swaziland (219 320) and Zimbabwe (214 579). Gauteng received the highest share of international arrivals in the country (948 032), followed by the Western Cape (504 273) (Cape Town Routes Unlimited 2006).

Although international tourist spending in South Africa in the first quarter in 2006 showed a decline to an average of R6 692, international arrivals in the Western Cape were the highest recorded for the first quarter of any year. The majority of international arrivals in the Western Cape were from the UK (114 315), followed by Germany (55 515) and Namibia (36 194) (Cape Town Routes Unlimited 2006).

As stated by Cape Town Routes Unlimited (Western Cape Tourism Trends Report), during the second quarter in 2006 (April to June), the total number of international arrivals to South Africa was 1 945 693, of which 17% visited the Western Cape. From the second quarter in 2005, international arrivals to the Western Cape increased by 7.7% and the number of bed-nights increased by 24.7%, bringing the total number to 4.4 million (Cape Town Routes Unlimited 2006).

The second quarter of 2006 recorded the highest number of international arrivals (1 945 693) to South Africa, showing a 6.9% growth since the second quarter of 2005, with most international arrivals originating from Lesotho (464 456), followed by Zimbabwe (253 016) and Swaziland (248 436). Gauteng received the highest share of international arrivals to South Africa in this period (914 476), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (350 225) and the Western Cape (330 768).

The majority of international visitors to the Western Cape were from the UK (55 327), followed by the US (36 340) and Germany (30 127) (Cape Town Routes Unlimited 2006).

THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF TOURIST SPENDING
A tourist spends money on a wide variety of goods and services provided by a wide range of businesses. For example, when visiting a destination a tourist would have to purchase accommodation, food and beverages, transport, entertainment services, communications, goods from retail outlets and travel services. Therefore, this money may be seen as a demand that is created by people from outside of the area of the local economy. As a result of international tourism, tourist
expenditure involves non-nationals spending within the national economy (Swart 2007), and in the case of domestic tourism, tourist expenditure is a result of spending by people who do not live in the area in which the money is spent. However, the total value of international and domestic tourist expenditure only represents a partial and sometimes deceptive image of the total economic impact (Swart 2007).

The full assessment of the economic impact must take into account other aspects such as leakages of expenditure out of the local economy, indirect and induced effects, and displacement and opportunity costs. Expenditure by tourists within an economy depends upon the extent of leakages that occur, and thus will determine the amount of money that stays in the economy. For example, if a tourist purchases a carved wooden souvenir from a gift shop in South Africa, the extent of leakages will depend on whether the carving was imported or made locally. If the carving was imported, the tourist is really only buying the added value that was created within the local economy, i.e. the value of local transport, import, government taxes and duties, etc. (Cooper et al 1998). The extent of leakages can result from demand-side factors in that different types of tourist activity tend to be associated with a different propensity to purchase imported goods. However, leakages can also be linked with supply-side factors, especially in developing economies where the local capacity to supply the needs of tourists may be small and there is consequently a high percentage of demand met through imported goods and services. Wherever money flows out of circulation, either by being spent on goods and services from outside or simply being withdrawn through savings, leakages result (Swart 2007).

INTERNATIONAL AND DOMESTIC TOURIST FLOWS TO SOUTH AFRICA

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) states that international tourist arrivals are determined by a relatively small number of destinations in the north-west and south-east of the African continent. North Africa received 35% of the regional total, and southern Africa 30%, attracting two-thirds of the total tourist arrivals. On the other hand, East Africa received 23%, leaving West Africa with only 10% and Central Africa with 3% (WTO 2003).

According to Mitchell and Ashley, the leading destinations for African tourism are Egypt and South Africa (Mitchell & Ashley 2006). In 2005 the industry was worth an estimated $73.6 billion, divided between the four main African regions, and supporting about 10.6 million employment opportunities. It is stated by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) that Africa will see the sector grow between 1995 and 2020. By 2020 the South African region should experience over 300% growth in tourist arrivals, with South Africa and southern Africa is expected to have a great increase in visitor numbers (WTTC1999).

During 2004, South Africa received the largest number of tourists in its history, totalling nearly seven million international tourist arrivals of which more than two million came from other continents. South Africa was ranked 32nd in terms of international receipts (South African Tourism 2005). Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the sources of foreign visitors arriving in South Africa in 2004.
Figure 1: The geography of international visitor arrivals in South Africa, 2004

Figure 2: Leading country sources of foreign arrivals in South Africa

The leading source markets to South Africa during 2004 were as follows: Lesotho (1.47 million visitors), followed by Swaziland (849 179 visitors) and Botswana (802 715 visitors). These are all neighbouring states of South Africa. The main overseas markets were as follows: the UK (456 368 visitors), Germany (245 452 visitors) and the US (208 159 visitors). However, the number of SADC air travellers (200 000) arriving in South Africa is very much lower than the sum of arrivals from the UK (450 000), which positions itself in fifth place in terms of its significance as a source market as indexed by the number of visitor arrivals (South African Tourism 2005).

THE PURPOSE OF VISITS TO SOUTH AFRICA

According to South African Tourism (2005), the purposes of tourist visits are classified in terms of holiday, leisure, business, and visiting friends and relatives (VFR), meaning that South Africa’s groups of international tourists visit the country for many different reasons. When looking at the
overseas market, North American and European tourists mainly visit South Africa for holiday or leisure purposes. However, most regional tourists visit South Africa mainly for business purposes. When looking at the African source markets, the highest number of business travellers come from Mozambique (71.5%), Tanzania (63.9%) and Botswana (60%). The highest share of leisure tourists are from Angola (38.5%) and Zimbabwe (38.2%). When looking at the VFR category, the highest were Namibia (47%), Lesotho (40%) and Zimbabwe (28.4%) (South African Tourism 2005).

AVERAGE AMOUNT SPENT BY TOURISTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

South African Tourism (2005) states that during 2004, the direct spending of foreign tourists in South Africa amounted to R47.8 billion. The total direct spending by African tourists was about R25 billion, representing a 53% share. Visitors from Europe contributed R13 billion and Americans R2.5 billion (South African Tourism 2005).

The following markets are the most significant individual ones, including both overseas and African visitors: Mozambique R7 548 million, the UK R5 819 million, Zimbabwe R4 516 million, Lesotho R3 967 million, Swaziland R3 304 million, Germany R2 338 million, Namibia R1 903 million, the US R1 808 million and the Netherlands R1 087 million. Although the overseas countries average much more than that of African visitors, the African countries still stand for five of the average between R9 000 and R13 000 per visit. Whereas Lesotho visitors spend about R2 000, those from Mozambique spend an average of R21 000. However, this is for certain source markets of African travellers.

According to South African Tourism (2005), the latest available data revealed that tourists arriving from Angola, Kenya and Mozambique were spending more in South Africa compared to visitors travelling from Europe and the US. The average business visitor from Lesotho spends R3 766, whereas leisure travellers spend an average of R3 745. However, a VFR visitor from Lesotho will spend an average of R376 per day (South African Tourism 2005). (Please refer to Appendix C: Average spending (rand) in South Africa by geographical origin and purpose of visit.)

THE POTENTIAL OF UTILISING TOURISM BENEFITS FOR THE COMMUNITIES AND THE CITY OF CAPE TOWN AND TOURISM ISSUES PERTAINING TO UNDERDEVELOPED AREAS IN CAPE TOWN

Tourism in the townships

Great efforts have been made over the past years to put the townships of Cape Town on the tourist map, and to make them one of the main tourist attractions. A considerable tourist infrastructure has been developed due to the support of the City of Cape Town and the Community-based Development Fund, with projects such as the Look Out Platform and Tourist Information in both Khayelitsha and Gugulethu, as well as the Migrant Labour Museum in Lwandle (Telschow 2003).

The increase of tourists in the city centre of Cape Town and in the affluent surrounding suburbs has meant that there is also an increase of visitors to the townships around Cape Town. This has motivated the initiative of many township inhabitants, and B&Bs, restaurants, craftsmen and travel organisers have begun to establish themselves. In comparison with the big tourism projects of Cape Town, projects like these are still very modest. However, it is a great start and makes the townships more attractive for the purpose of tourism (Telschow 2003).

Tourism development in local communities

According to the Annual review 2000: Tourism the way to go, a business trust programme called Tourism Enterprise Programme (TEP) assists new entrants through advice and expertise. TEP has made R66 million available for the development of both small and medium-sized tourism
businesses over four years. However, this is expected to reach an ultimate total transaction cost of R475 million. The most exciting part of this programme is that mentors are dedicated to each fledging business until it is successful. There is no question of giving funding and then allowing the new entrepreneur to succumb alone (Annual Review 2000).

According to the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), a number of new small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) have been identified in townships such as Gugulethu and Mamelodi, where meetings were held, and the department is now developing a database to make it easy to identify these young entrepreneurs. Because of the current trends in the hospitality industry and outsourcing of core facilities, such as laundry, catering and transport, SMMEs stand to benefit hugely from these activities. Also, there are vacant or neglected areas such as abandoned state camping sites that are being acquired by communities to use for tourism purposes. The Amadiba Community Trust tourism enterprise is already running, and provides tourists with horse riding, fly-fishing and canoeing along the Wild Coast. More and more communities are becoming aware of the wide range of tourist activities they can offer (cultural, heritage, historical, ecological, religious, etc.) and are becoming more involved (Annual Review 2000).

Poverty relief

The Poverty Relief Fund has committed about R130 million towards product development, infrastructure development, capacity building and trading, establishment of SMMEs and business development projects within a tourism context. During 1999 and 2000, nine tourism craft projects were set up, and in the past year a further 76. In the nine provinces these projects are expected to create jobs for 8 600 people. DEAT is identifying and helping small and medium tourism businesses all over the country, especially in rural areas (Annual Review 2000).

Tourism investment

DEAT is working together with the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) by developing a holistic and integrated support package for investing in tourism, and also consisting of mentorship assistance, access to affordable finance, market linkages and training.

However, this programme is also being developed with the following key role-players: the Industrial Development Corporation, the Development Bank of SA, the Banking Council, Business Skills SA, the National Business Initiative, and others.

Given the fact that both nature and adventure tourism are draw cards of underdeveloped rural areas, DEAT is working on a series of spatial clusters connecting under-funded regions with existing infrastructure. These tourism opportunities will create benefits in terms of jobs and economic growth to poor communities (Annual Review 2000).

Education and skills

The following tourism projects were launched through the business trust:

During 2001, the leadership programme managed by the Tourism, Hospitality, Education and Training Authority (THETA) had its first intake of students. Bearing in mind that qualifications have been developed and submitted to both the Department of Labour and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), the aim of the leadership programme is to train 5 000 unemployed people and upgrade skills of 10 000 people currently working in the hospitality industry (Annual Review 2000).

- In 2000, the South African Tourism Institute (SATI) was launched. It was the culmination of three years of hard work by both DEAT and the Spanish government that committed R15.7 million to the project
- SATI’s aim is to build the capacity of educationists, trainees and assessors, as well as to provide a research hub for improving professionalism in the field of training in the industry (Annual Review 2000).
THETA concentrates on training and education in a number of industry sectors. These include:
- Travel and tourism services
- Hospitality
- Gaming and gambling
- Conservation and leisure

(Annual Review 2000).

THE IMPACTS OF TOURISM INVESTMENT ON RURAL COMMUNITIES

As stated by Ashley, Boyd and Goodwin (2000), pro-poor tourism can be defined as an approach driven by the state, the private sector or the community which generates both the economic and non-economic net benefits to the poor. However, internationally the promotion of the tourism sector by both governments and donor organisations has typically aimed at encouraging macro-economic growth, foreign exchange earnings and private sector investments, but without particularly taking the needs of the poor into account. It was believed that the benefits of the growth in the tourism industry would ultimately filter down to the poor and would then require no specific government intervention. The pro-poor tourism strategy signifies a change in this laissez-faire approach, and also emphasises the need to initiate specific methods to make certain that these benefits of tourism growth will eventually filter to the poor (Ashley et al. 2000).

According to Wells (1996) and Roe (2001), the focus on tourism and its impact on rural communities is becoming more and more prominent worldwide. Rural communities need to play a major role in the management and conservation of natural resources, and tourism and environmental professionals realise the importance of this role. This has led to the creation of a number of models in which rural communities are acknowledged as both the custodians and the principle beneficiaries of protected areas (Wells 1996; Roe 2001).

The following case study describes the extent to which a tourism project has generated – or has the potential to generate – net benefits for the poor, and in terms of impacts of the projects measured against key policy objectives.

MAKULEKE TOURISM INITIATIVE

The Makuleke Tourism Initiative is at a rather early stage of implementation, meaning that the financial benefits flowing into the communities are still limited. However, the long-term potential of the initiative is acknowledged, and a few of the potential economic and financial benefits have accrued to the community. Makuleke is located in the Northern province of South Africa and the community consists of 15 000 people.

Economic and financial benefits
- Employment
  While no direct employment opportunities have resulted from the Makuleke initiative, there have been many others that are not related to tourism investment, but have emerged due to the injection of donor and state funds, as well as other activities such as conservation in the area (Rogerson 2000).
- Small business development
  Most of the tourism developments at Makuleke will be structured in such a way so as to create opportunities for SMMEs, such as guest and staff transportation, building material supply, laundry services and garbage disposal. Many technical training programmes have been implemented to ensure that the local community is able to take up such SMME opportunities (Rogerson 2000).
- Collective economic benefits
  Thus far the revenue generated from hunting has been the greatest economic benefit. During 2000
Makuleke had contracted out hunts and was earning up to R520 000 in hunting fees, with the meat being distributed among the local communities (Rogerson 2000).

**Economic participation**

The Makuleke land is estimated at being worth R65 million with an addition R3 million due to infrastructure. Therefore the community has ownership of a great asset and this allows them to transact with it on a commercial basis (Rogerson 2000).

**ECONOMIC BENEFITS OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP FOR THE CITY OF CAPE TOWN**

For the first time in history the Soccer World Cup will be coming to Africa in 2010. South Africa is the richest and most culturally diverse of the African nations and has been “chomping at the bit” to get centre stage of a worldwide event after years of isolation due to apartheid. According to Waltz (2005), whereas South Africa’s hosting of the World Cup is not likely to draw as many foreign visitors as the World Cup in 1994 in the US or in 2006 in Germany, the economic benefit will be significant due in part to the historical nature of the location and the already emerging economy of South Africa (Waltz 2005).

According to Philip and Donaldson (2004), the total direct economic value for the South African gross domestic product (GDP) is expected to be approximately R24.5 billion, and a total of R8.4 billion is expected to be paid directly to the government in the form of extra taxes. Another 159 000 new jobs, both permanent and temporary, are likely to be created. However, the tourism, private investment and government infrastructure investment spin-offs are not taken into account (Philip & Donaldson 2004). The government plans to spend almost R2 800 billion on upgrading stadiums, not including the associated infrastructure. These include projects already scheduled that will be fast-tracked, such as the R8.4 billion Gautrain (a high-speed rail linking Johannesburg and Pretoria), a “signature bridge” in Coega, the Statue of Freedom in Port Elizabeth (dedicated to Nelson Mandela) and a new international airport in Cape Town (Philip & Donaldson 2004).

As for tourists (and teams) coming and staying in country, there will be 36 teams with an average of 50 people per team, 10 500 media personnel, 5 000 VIPs and 500 FIFA officials. As for spectators, a total of half a million foreign visitors (located outside the continent of Africa) are expected for the tournament, staying an average of 15 days, counting knock-out stage matches. This is considerably more than the 190 000 overseas visitors that arrive in the peak season South Africa (November to March). A total of 2.72 million spectators are expected to be in attendance for the matches, counting both the foreign and domestic spectators. The revenues earned directly from spectator spending are R14.7 billion. Comparing the figures of the 2003 Cricket World Cup, there were 18 500 visitors with a direct economic value of R11.9 million, therefore the economic estimate is considered conservative (Philip & Donaldson 2004).

According to the business plan for Cape Town for the 2010 Soccer World Cup, the economic impacts costs and benefits are as follows:

**Costs**

The rebuilding and maintaining of the Green Point stadium to FIFA standards for a semi-final is R2.4 billion. The present value (PV) of rebuilding and maintaining to the current seating capacity of the stadium is R389 million.

The PV of the precinct upgrade is R43 million and the urban park R44 million.

The PV of the operating costs of the new stadium are R179 million compared to R44 million for the existing stadium. The precinct management company has a PV cost of R43 million. Therefore the upgrading of the Green Point stadium and common to FIFA semi-final standards has a PV cost of R2.7 billion compared to R434 million for upgrading the existing stadium to its current seating capacity.
capacity. On the whole there is an overall difference of R2.3 billion (2010 FIFA World Cup Business Plan 2007).

• **Benefits**

  If hosting the Confederation Cup it will, however, generate economic benefits with a PV of R4.7 million.
  
  The new stadium will generate ticket sales to the PV of R26m compared to R14m for the do-nothing option.
  
  The new stadium will generate visitor and tourism revenues with a PV of R482 million compared to R243 million in the do-nothing option.
  
  Therefore overall the net present value (NPV) of the proposed project is a negative R2.2 billion compared to negative R172 million for the do-nothing case. This is an overall difference of negative R2.1 billion (2010 Soccer World Cup Business Plan 2007).
  
  The above analysis is from Cape Town’s perspective, and if it is attuned to the national perspective, the net overall negative difference reduces to R1.9 billion.
  
  An analysis of the difference in NPVs of the costs and benefits, taking into account only likely costs to be borne by the City, indicates that if the City pays for 8.4% or less of the stadium costs, it will experience a positive net NPV (2010 Soccer World Cup Business Plan 2007).
  
  According to a strict cost benefit analysis perspective, the planned project has a negative NPV which is by far larger. However, most of the costs linked with the planned project have been included, but not all of the benefits because some cannot be quantified and some cannot be quantified in the time available. These include possible FIFA funding, benefits from the upgrade and use of the common, showcasing the City, civic pride and integration.
  
  On the whole the decision to rebuild the Green Point stadium needed to be a strategic and political one, rather than one based on the strict cost benefit analysis (2010 Soccer World Cup Business Plan 2007).

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

For the purpose of this research, the researcher conducted an in-depth literature review, as well as an empirical survey aimed at both domestic and international tourists. Closed-ended questions were asked as part of the questionnaire, after which data was analysed quantitatively.

**INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS**

In larger groups ranging from 20 to 60 members, the researcher would approach only one member of the group to complete the questionnaire, whereas if all members had to complete the questionnaire, the researcher believes that the results would be misleading or obscured.

It is obvious that all respondents had visited the Western Cape due to the fact that the survey was conducted within the Western Cape. It is evident that the main responses were from foreign tourists as they were the target population, which corresponds to the literature review which states as follows:

During 2004 South Africa received the largest number of foreign tourists in history, thus being nearly seven million international tourist arrivals of which more than two million came from other continents and South Africa was ranked 32nd in terms of international receipts (South African Tourism 2005).

This statement corresponds to the fieldwork, therefore it is a known fact that the majority of the tourists are international visitors.

These findings coincide with the literature review that since 2005 there has been an increase in international arrivals to the Western Cape, as shown by the following quotations:

Quarter 2 in 2005, international arrivals to the Western Cape have increased by 7.7% and the number of bed nights spent by international visitors in the Western Cape increased by 24.7%, making the total
number of bed nights spent by international visitors in the Western Cape 4.4 million (Cape Town Routes Unlimited 2006).

During 2002, international tourists had spent approximately R17.3 billion in the Western Cape, of which overseas visitors contributed mostly [R12.7 billion]. They had spent 43% on accommodation, 20% on transport, 20% on recreation and entertainment and 17% on food and beverages. During this time the Western Cape had the highest length of stay of all South Africans provinces and overseas visitors spent on average 9.1 days in the province, where as African air visitors spent about 13.8 days and African land visitors spent 6.5 days. In the Western Cape the average hotel occupancy were 66%, compared to 59% for SA as a whole in 2002 (Western Cape Tourism Board 2007).

It is clearly evident that the number of bed-nights increased due to the increase of international visitors to the Western Cape, and according to the literature foreign tourists contributed greatly by spending over R12 billion in the Western Cape during 2002. According to the Western Cape Tourism Board, in the Western Cape more bed-nights are sold to international visitors than in any other province, and of the 12 million bed-nights sold to foreign tourists, 8.9 million were to overseas tourists (Western Cape Tourism Board 2003).

Therefore it was mainly foreign visitors that arrived by air to the Western Cape. As stated in the literature review, there was an increase in international direct flights to Cape Town: “During 2001 and 2002, foreign arrivals on international direct flights to Cape Town had increased by 20%, resulting in the significant seat capacity increase since September 2002” (The Western Cape Tourism Board 2007).

According to these findings, the most successful destination in South Africa is Cape Town.

On a positive note, all the respondents intend to visit the Western Cape again, and the researcher believes this is of utmost importance. As stated by the Western Cape Tourism Board (2001), by 2010 there would be an increase of three million overseas visitors (Western Cape Tourism Board 2007).

When distinguishing between domestic and international tourists to see who travels for what purpose, according to the literature review it is clear that international tourists’ main purpose for visiting the Western Cape is for holiday or leisure purposes:

When looking at the overseas market the North American and European foreign tourists mainly visit South Africa for holiday or leisure purposes. However, most regional tourists would visit South Africa mainly for business purposes rather than for leisure purposes Therefore it is evident that this analysis corresponds to what is stated in the literature review. However, many tourists both from African and overseas countries tend to utilise the VFR factor as accommodation options are easier and more affordable, thus they can then spend more money on other activities other than accommodation such as transport, entertainment, food, etc.

South African Tourism (2005) gives a breakdown of international tourists’ use of different types of accommodation while visiting South Africa. Most tourists coming from Africa as well as overseas visitors from the UK and Australia will make use of the VFR factor. Many such tourists would also consider visiting the major cities such as Johannesburg, Durban, Cape Town and Port Elizabeth (South African Tourism 2005).

Table 2: Amount spent on BEVERAGES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
<th>Cumulative percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>95.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>system</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3: Amount spent on GIFTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
<th>Cumulative percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid 0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>95.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>system 1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Amount spent on ACCOMMODATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
<th>Cumulative percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid 500</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>95.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>system 1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Amount spent on OTHER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
<th>Cumulative percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid 500 (entertainment)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall the common amount is on average R500 per day per person. As shown in table 2, 80% indicated that they spend roughly R500 on beverages per person per day, whereas 15% indicated that they spend about R1 000 on beverages (this consists of a group of tourists with more than 20 members). With reference to table 3, 50% indicated spending R1 000 on gifts, and 35% R500. In table 4, out of the 20 respondents only one did not respond to this question. Of the 90%, 40% spent up to R 1000 per day on accommodation, 35% spent R5 000, and 20% spent R500.

With regard to other expenditure such as entertainment (table 5), only 5% indicated that they spent R500 on entertainment. It is clear that many tourists have different needs, wants and levels of satisfaction, and will pay for what they want. Therefore this analysis coincides with what is stated within the literature review.

Table 6: Overview of results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International group size</th>
<th>International visits</th>
<th>Nights spent</th>
<th>Amount spent on trip</th>
<th>Food</th>
<th>Beverages</th>
<th>Gifts</th>
<th>Accommodation</th>
<th>Monthly income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>8.72</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>888.89</td>
<td>578.95</td>
<td>673.68</td>
<td>2 368.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>17.17</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>3214.55</td>
<td>1050.98</td>
<td>187.317</td>
<td>1020.26</td>
<td>2 073.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 highlights the group sizes, the number of nights spent in the Western Cape, as well as the amounts spent on the trip including transport and what was spent per person on an average day. It also indicates the monthly incomes of visitors. The above analysis gives an indication of what was spent on average per tourist. It clearly indicates that more money was spent on accommodation, followed by food, gifts and beverages. According to this analysis each tourist spent about R12 809.94 on their trip from an average monthly income of R30 000.
CONCLUSION
The aim of this research study was to identify what contribution tourists make to the economy, and to investigate if local communities benefit from these economic inflows.

In conclusion, it is stated in the literature review that both international and domestic tourist contribute greatly towards the economy. Research shows that the main reasons for visiting the Western Cape are for holiday purposes, and the findings of this study coincide with those of the literature. Taking into account the total expenditure of each tourist, the results show that the average tourist earns up to R30 000 per month and spends between R10 000 and R12 000 when visiting the Western Cape, contributing greatly towards the national economy. It is therefore relatively important for more and more tourists from both overseas and African countries to visit the country.

An understanding of the differences between overseas and regional tourists is of special significance in terms of policy and planning for urban tourism. The role played by urban places in terms of the tourism experience of overseas and regional African visitors must be appreciated somewhat differently. For the overseas tourist, cities comprise an important element within their general experience of South Africa as a whole, which includes the country’s rural-focused, nature-based tourism products. However, the urban focus provides a number of opportunities where overseas visitors can make a valuable contribution to broadening the visitor base of various urban attractions that might not otherwise be viable if they were dependent only on domestic or regional tourists.

Tourism is a growth industry in South Africa with the prospect of creating jobs and wealth in needy communities who are guardians of bio- and cultural diversity. However, in South Africa, the public, private and community sectors have devoted considerable time, money and effort in the design, implementation and management of community-based enterprises.

Great effort has been made in order to integrate less fortunate communities. For example, the townships have been put on the map and can now be seen as tourist attractions, as the increase in foreign tourists coming to Cape Town has specifically resulted in visitors to these areas. As there are many SMMEs that are being established in these areas, they are assisted by the government, the Department of Economic Development and Tourism, and various enterprises such as the Tourism Enterprise Programme and the Department of Environment Affairs and Tourism. To take advantage of tourism opportunities, the government has assisted entrepreneurs in the Western Cape with small businesses development so that they in turn can create jobs within their communities.

There are important differences in the extent of opportunities linked to the supply chains of various forms of tourism investment and many other geographical environments. For instance the supply chain of upmarket ecotourism development has not produced the wide selection of opportunities that many observers had predicted. The greater numbers and a wider range of SMME opportunities take place under conditions of investments linked to an “African experience”, or in niches in the tourism industry that are not aimed at the highest-income travellers. Certainly, the more the tourist product and supply chain are influenced by international standards, the smaller the range of opportunities for emerging SMMEs other than as bases for lowering costs (such as room cleaning through outsourcing). Therefore the most important opportunities for emerging SMMEs in the travel and tourism economy are those arising from proposals for cost reduction or most vital from government intervention.

A sustained focus on job creation is necessary by all Capetonians, especially those who have the means, to assist entrepreneurs, professionals and others to rebuild our society and to re-establish core values in order to create sustainable employment. Jobs open the doors to restoring dignity to individuals and to communities.

REFERENCES

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ASSESSING THE MANAGEMENT OF RISKS IN THE EVENT INDUSTRY AND ITS RELEVANCE TO 2010 IN THE CITY OF CAPE TOWN

TJ Makda*

ABSTRACT
This paper illustrated what the common risks are that event stakeholders within the City of Cape Town have found difficult to manage and have regularly encountered. Research shows that Cape Town has become one of the most popular and prestigious destinations to visit, and has opened its doors to both minor and major events worldwide. Risk management plays an important role in the planning and organising of these events. Successful annual events that have established themselves in Cape Town are those such as the Cape Town International Jazz Festival, the Cape Outdoor Adventure and Travel Show, the Community Chest Carnival, the Design Indaba, Design for Living, Homemakers Expo, the Cape Argus Cycle Tour, as well as the Two Oceans Marathon and Cape Town International Kite Festival. Even though necessary Acts and legislation have been established by the South African government for event organisations, event stakeholders fail to adhere to them. Research has found that there is a limited amount of knowledge in risk management by event stakeholders.

INTRODUCTION
Risk management concerns prediction and prevention, and is described as a process of continuous improvement which is directed towards effective management of potential opportunities and adverse effects that would impact the event. Risk management has become one of the most important operational domains within the event industry in Cape Town, as well as on a global scale. The hosting of events is a significant part of Cape Town’s competitiveness strategy (City of Cape Town 2008b). Since Cape Town has become a global player within the events arena, much focus is placed on risk compliance, responsibility and accountability.

RISK MANAGEMENT AND THE EVENT INDUSTRY
The evolution of risk
According to Ansell and Wharton (1992: 4), the origin of the word risk is thought to be either the Arabic word risq or the Latin word risicurn. The Arabic risq signifies “anything that has been given to you [by God] and from which you draw profit” and has connotations of a fortuitous and favourable outcome. It is further stated that the word “risk” is used to imply a measurement of the chance of an outcome, the size of the outcome or a combination of both (Ansell & Wharton 1992: 4).

The perception of risk
Silvers (2005, cited in O’Toole 2007: 1) argues that risk management is a core competency and responsibility in events, and that there are limited resources for event organisers in the way of clear, comprehensive and practical tools that assist in managing exposure to loss, damage or any uncertainties that surround events and event operations. Silvers (2005, cited in O’Toole 2007: 2) further asserts that “risk management is the art and science of planning, assessing, and handling future events to ensure favourable outcomes and the act or practice of dealing with risk”.

Silvers (2005, cited in O’Toole 2007: 2) agrees that there is an increase in risk management planning by event stakeholders such as government agencies, insurance companies and sponsors.
Ansell and Wharton (1992: 5) state that before the risk analysis, risk assessment and risk management process, it should be acknowledged that risk issues are perceived and not actual risks. Individuals, organisations and governments make decisions that are based on perceptions on the likely consequences of their actions.

**Risk management**

Bowden, Lane and Martin (2001: XV) suggest that businesses that want to be sustainable in the 21st century would be better advised to adopt a philosophy that risk management is a process of continuous improvement which is directed towards an effective management of potential opportunities and adverse effects. It is stated that business risk involves exposure to events that would have an adverse impact on a company’s objectives.

Silvers (2005, cited in O’Toole 2007: 1) argues that risk management is a core competency and responsibility in events, and that there are limited resources for event organisers in the way of clear, comprehensive and practical tools that will assist in managing exposure to loss, damage or any uncertainties that surround events and event operations. Silvers (2005, cited in O’Toole 2007: 2) further states that “risk management is the art and science of planning, assessing, and handling future events to ensure favourable outcomes and the act or practice of dealing with risk”.

Heldman (2005: 1) defines risk management as an integral part of project management, and further explains that risks are often thought of as negative consequences and that they pose threats to projects and events. However, they are also potential opportunities. Heldman (2005: 5) further elaborates that most organisations will take risks when the risk benefits outweigh the consequences of an undesirable outcome. It is contextualised that risks are daily or routine occurrences. Organisations and individuals make decisions daily on various projects and events which maximise risk factors without following proper procedures and policies that have been established.

**PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

A significant aspect of this study is to assess the risks that event stakeholders and event managers in Cape Town encounter. It assesses how effective and efficient methods can be implemented in order to minimise or prevent risks from occurring. It further analyses the significance of a risk management framework within the City of Cape Town.

In order to assess risks and to develop a risk management strategy, stakeholders should understand the concept of risk and the risk profile that businesses are subject to (Bowden et al. 2001: 5). It is mentioned that organisations are complex and challenging and that the focus on risk management is minimal, irrespective of the scale of the event. However, in large events there may be substantial potential losses unless the internal operational elements are carefully managed. It is further mentioned that smaller event organisations may be risky because of irregular operations within them. Such irregularities include legal or contractual agreements, adherence to policies and legislation, political interference, financial issues, social issues, safety issues, or regulatory or licensing conditions.

**THE IMPORTANCE OF ASSESSING RISKS MANAGEMENT**

O’Toole (2007) has conducted a generic study on the latest developments in the event industry and asserts that, annually, risk management becomes more important, and that worldwide, governments are introducing new health and safety codes. O’Toole (2007) further asserts that there are event inspectors who inspect the company to “enable verification of current work systems and assessment of baseline compliance” for events and festivals. According to Bowden et al. (2001: 3), a company’s business risk portfolio may include events with potential impacts on the organisation’s investments, income, staff and local community welfare, occupational health and safety, natural environment, property and legal liabilities, and insurance coverage.
Bowden et al. (2001: 17) state that the importance of risk assessment provides an understanding of the risks and a basis for defining acceptable and unacceptable risk events such as corporate governance reporting, which requires business managers to demonstrate management of their organisation’s risk exposure at acceptable or practical levels.

Heldman (2005: 16) argues that using proper risk management tools and techniques, enables the event manager to manage the event proactively instead of reactively.

RESEARCH PROBLEM
Extensive research shows that there are no specific risk management systems established for the event industry in Cape Town. There are various risk management models that are used by risk management consultants in Cape Town. However, these have become cumbersome and impractical for event managers to comprehend and use, and may become costly to sustain. This can become a risk in itself. Strategies that are in place which focus on economic, physical, psychological and performance risks for event organisers are not effectively executed pertaining to the type of event.

According to Ninow (2007), the event industry in South Africa encounters major problems since the event organisers do not comply with regulations or take advice from safety and security officers.

Research has shown that there is a lack of adherence to public liability, insurance coverage, legal compliance, Acts and legislation as set out by government.

AIMS OF THE STUDY
• To assess the current situation regarding risks that are common within the event industry in Cape Town and how these are being effectively managed.
• To establish whether event organisations, event practitioners, event venues and event students involved in the industry are aware of any risk management procedures and policies.
• To make event organisations, event practitioners, event venues and event students aware of the fact that is important to establish a risk management policy which is suitable for all minor and major events.

There is no specific policy or legislation that is formulated in the management of risks. Regarding public liability, loss or damage, there is minimal consideration for the person affected. The protection of human beings should be considered. The aim was to conduct research which relates to procedures and lawful practices in respect of events within the greater Cape Town area.

Types of risks
Heldman (2005: 31) states that categorising risks would make it easier for the event organiser to manage the event. Table 1 describes each risk category for an event organisation (Heldman 2005: 32).

Common risk types
There are various types of risks that hamper the event industry. Heldman (2005: 34–35) outlines a number of these as follows:
• Loss of key staff.
• Inadequate project budgets.
• Changes in weather conditions.
• New and complex technology.
• Unrealistic performance goals.
• Immeasurable performance standards.
• Environmental threats.
Assessing the management of risks in the event industry

- Lack of involvement by the event organiser or project sponsor.
- Loss of sponsors.
- Loss of clients.
- Resistance to change.
- Availability of resources.
- Availability of technical experts.
- Knowledge and skills of business and technical experts.
- Cultural barriers.
- Lack of effective leadership within the organisation.
- Financial loss.
- Lack of skills and abilities in team members and the event manager.

These are common risks on a generic and large scale, which can be further grouped into four main categories, as stated by Tassiopoulos (2000: 229):

- Economic risk (financial loss).
- Performance risk (poor quality performance, weather deterioration, unreliability).
- Psychological risk (poor image of an event, the venue and the environment can reduce attendance).
- Physical risk (danger to life, disease, crime, safety and security).

Clarification of these risk concepts can be discussed as follows:

- Economic risk is risk in financial terms, which can involve unforeseen costs, high exchange rates, decline in economic circumstances, insufficient sponsorship, insufficient funding, inaccurate capital and operating costs, and a lack of public money. Performance risk takes place within the event organisation whereby mismanagement can prevent the organisation from reaching its objectives. Technological risk has become an increasing risk for major events as many high-profile events are reliant on technology (Van der Wagen, 2005: 101 – 103). Psychological risk involves social and environmental impacts that can affect the event. Physical risk is one of the common and most important risks which occur in the event industry. Much attention should be focused on public liability, and health and safety.

- Silvers (2005, cited in O’Toole 2007: 1) states that much of the event industry literature on risk management is presented in the context of insurance coverage and legal liability. This is common because when people are injured or killed, and property is lost, damaged or destroyed, the result is usually to assign blame and to seek compensation. Silvers (2005, cited in O’Toole 2007: 1) further avers that it is equally important to consider the health and safety of those who together create, operate, participate in and attend these public and private gatherings. What is absent is a systematic and logical approach to risk management for events that is comprehensive, consistent, reliable and proactive.

- It is further researched that public liability has become increasingly difficult for event managers and event practitioners to manage. Not enough is done to protect the public. The health and safety of participants within the event organisation should be considered. Legal issues regarding contracts between the event manager and the client are not proactively implemented, including third-party liability.

- O’Toole (2007) has conducted a generic study on the latest developments in the event industry and asserts that, annually, risk management becomes more important, and worldwide governments are introducing new health and safety codes. O’Toole (2007) further states that there are event inspectors who inspect the company to “enable verification of current work systems and assessment of baseline compliance” for events and festivals.

- Van der Wagen (2001: 107) analyses the risk management process into a logical risk management plan, as seen by the example in table 1.
Table 1: Risk management plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Nature of risk</th>
<th>Impact of risk</th>
<th>Management: Control</th>
<th>Management: Contingency planning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Weather: Rain or extreme heat</td>
<td>Rain will result in poor attendance and low on-site sales</td>
<td>Monitor weather reports, provide cover for spectators</td>
<td>Roving staff to sell ponchos if it is wet, or drinks and water if it is hot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fire and evacuation</td>
<td>Impact would be serious; however, risk is not high owing to venue design</td>
<td>Establish a venue emergency response plan (VERP)</td>
<td>VERP to identify clear communication with emergency services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Crowd control</td>
<td>Biggest potential impact: On entry to venue owing to transport delays</td>
<td>Use promotional material and a ticketing process</td>
<td>Senior staff deployed to tackle problems of gatecrashers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Financial management</td>
<td>Financial failure for event organiser, bankruptcy, breach of contract</td>
<td>Financial control systems, limited authority for purchasing and expenditure</td>
<td>Limited; short-term money market; sponsorship and VIPs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Staff management</td>
<td>Poor staff selection and training will have an impact on service levels</td>
<td>Development of recruitment specifications and job descriptions</td>
<td>Agency staff; pay for volunteers; work experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Van der Wagen (2001:107–108, Figure 8.2).

COMPLIANCE AND QUALITY ASSURANCE

Ninow (2007) highlighted that the event industry is global. It has the capacity to be measured in international terms, but it is only a small part of the industry that works internationally. Small business and local companies are under no pressure to comply with the sometimes expensive standards, while there is a large sector that works on a basis of “cheap and nasty but we get away with it”.

According to research, although the government spends R500 million annually on events in South Africa, there is still a lack of product quality control. According to Kesting (2007), the main aspects that should be focused on are procurement and supply chain, health and safety, benchmarking, accountability and standards.

Alignment: A strong alignment should be forged with security, media, advertising and engineering.

Standards/benchmarking: There is no standards authority which is applicable to events. A code of standards should be set specifically for the temporary nature of events. Expert input is required from emergency services, security and engineering.

Accountability: Besides legal accountability, events are only accountable to the client. There is a need for client education to heighten their awareness of the responsibilities that are inherent in events.

Health and safety guidelines: There is no clear guideline regarding health and safety in the temporary nature of events. Venues apply their varying standards, while clients apply theirs where they have them, but in a temporary venue they may be non-existent.

National procurement guidelines: It is stated that the procurement guidelines, set out by the National Treasury, are flaunted. Timelines are disregarded because of a lack of planning, and payments are overdue.

Legal compliance and insurance

Kesting (2007) has recommended that an events office should be established so that there is a central point for accreditation and compliance in planning events. All standards and regulations that are established should be applicable to all events. Examples mentioned are a tax clearance certificate and being tax compliant. Kesting (2007) concludes that if the event industry perseveres with standards and is consistent and disciplined, it can be self-regulating.
Compliance in eventing: No options
According to Ninow (2007), MD of Alex Ginton Risk Management Associates in South Africa, the event industry encounters major problems since event organisers do not comply with regulations or take advice from safety and security officers. Ninow (2007) argues that most businesses do not comply with the Occupational Health and Safety Act, and further states that events lack compliance with the Disaster Management Act 57 of 2002, construction regulations and the legal requirements of good corporate governance. Furthermore there is a lack of training and of skilled staff.

THE CITY OF CAPE TOWN AND ITS ROLE IN THE EVENT INDUSTRY
Hosting events is an important part of the City of Cape Town’s competitive marketing strategy, since events play an important role in modern cities to enhance cultural and social cohesion in communities, and support urban rejuvenation and economic growth. Furthermore, communities are central in making events successful (City of Cape Town 2008a: 2).

According to the City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a: 5), the policy seeks to use events in a proactive, creative and inclusive manner in order to promote and further develop Cape Town in the following ways:
  • A multidimensional, national and international event-friendly city and an all-round destination which supports, celebrates and complements Cape Town’s unique identity and profile.
  • Recognition of its communities and the impact of events on them.
  • Developing the city to the highest standard of safety and integrated management.
  • Developing the city where the importance of events is acknowledged as a major economic and social development driver.
  • Developing the city where events become a major important economic driver to the GDP of the local economy.
  • Developing the city where events are a major contribution to experience and place through sport, recreation, arts and culture.
  • Developing a city where events are developed and managed by contributing to sustainable development and the responsible use of natural resources.
  • Developing a city that actively seeks opportunities and challenges for new events that support the vision for events in the city and assist in making use of events venues and assets.

AIMS OF THE CITY OF CAPE TOWN EVENTS (DRAFT) POLICY 2008
The City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a: 2), which was drafted by the City of Cape Town, provides a framework and direction for various role-players, processes and the events calendar.

The establishment of the Events Policy aims to:
  • Create support by the City of Cape Town in the coordination and collaboration between role-players.
  • Promote partnerships.
  • Facilitate an appreciation of the requirements, expectations and responsibilities of all concerned.

STRATEGIC OBJECTIVES OF THE CITY OF CAPE TOWN EVENTS (DRAFT) POLICY 2008
The City of Cape Town focuses on strategic implementation of the Events Policy with reference to the following objectives (City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy, 2008a: 8):
  • Strategic development and hosting events should deliver real social and community benefits.
  • The strategy should actively support the city’s economic growth and maximise income-generating opportunities.
Events should be used to market and showcase Cape Town as a global destination, and its service delivery should enhance and further build the city’s brand and preserve its reputation. Events should build and support small businesses, and create opportunities for communities’ Events should build civic pride and social inclusion. Events management should support and position Cape Town in a positive way, and use and create partnerships with all spheres of government, agencies, community and business associations. The capacity of Cape Town to lead and support events is crucial, and systems and procedures should be established to ensure effective and efficient coordination, alignment, communication and planning for events.

The following necessary roles have been outlined for the City of Cape Town:
- Initiation of an event.
- Bidding of an event.
- Development of an event.
- Hosting of an event.
- Partnering as part of an event.
- Approval, monitoring, compliance of an event.
- Monitoring and evaluation of the return on investment (ROI) of an event to the City of Cape Town, both socially and economically.

INITIATION, DEVELOPMENT AND HOSTING OF EVENTS

According to the City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a: 9), the city will implement the following processes:
- Initiate, develop and host events to support the achievement of its strategic objectives and service delivery.
- The initiation process will be guided by the city’s and departmental strategic and developmental objectives.
- Relevant stakeholders will be consulted and coordinated during the event’s development and hosting process.
- Any events initiation, development and hosting proposals should be considered by the Strategic Events Coordination Committee (SECC) before proceeding.

According to the City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a: 12), the City of Cape Town Events Operational Manual will outline all the event processes that are required for the submission and consideration of an event application.

The following timeframes have been proposed by the City of Cape Town:

Table 2: Timeframes for the size and type of event

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Crowd size/no. of participants</th>
<th>Minimum time before an event to submit an application to the city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>1–2 000</td>
<td>10 working days (2 weeks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>2 001–5 000</td>
<td>15 working days (3 weeks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
<td>5 001–10 000</td>
<td>20 working days (1 month)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very large</td>
<td>10 001 and above</td>
<td>3 months (preferably 6 months)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application for a liquor licence at an event</td>
<td>21 working days</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from the City of Cape Town Events Policy (2008b: 12).

The event plan established by the City of Cape Town Events (Drafts) Policy 2008

According to the City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a: 13), an event plan is required from the event stakeholder, which consists of certain application requirements:
- Description of the event.
CONSULTATION ON EVENTS

In terms of the event, consultation will vary according to the different type, size and impact (City of Cape Town 2008a: 13). It is stated that the city will advise the applicant (event organiser) on the consultation process that should be followed for the event application. The City of Cape Town will consult with communities pertaining to the types of events that are applied for.

EVENTS APPROVALS

According to the City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a: 14), the Events Coordination Committee can approve or reject an application to stage an event, dependent on the following criteria:

- Alignment with the city’s strategic events policy objectives.
- Adherence to the city’s policies, legislation and by-laws.
- Impact of the event on the relevant environment and communities.
- Safety and risk management of events.
- Impact of events planned and approved in the City of Cape Town.
- History of the event, event organiser and event venue.

The Events Coordination Committee can reject applications to stage an event on the following bases:

- An incomplete event plan or event proposal and submitted for approval.
- A non-approved event plan.
- An incomplete event application.
- An event plan that is not submitted on time.
- An event organiser who has a previous record of unethical behaviour and non-compliance.
- Failure to comply with the necessary relevant legislation.
- Nuisance, health and noise concerns.

It is reiterated by the Events (Draft) Policy (2008a) that events may not proceed unless the event stakeholder has a receipt of a City of Cape Town events permit, which should be kept with the event stakeholder at all times.

EVENTS FUNDING

According to the City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a:15), it is the responsibility of the city to provide financial support, and funds should be budgeted for. It is asserted that the city will only support or contribute partially to the event and events will be self-funded. There will be uniform financial processes and tariffs for events.
CONTRACTS
According to the City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a: 16), the support of the city requires a formal memorandum of understanding (MoU) or a legally compliant document. It is stated in the Events (Draft) Policy (2008a) that an event permit is issued for an event that states specific and general conditions, which will be a binding contract between the City and the event stakeholder. It is further stated that events should be monitored and that non-compliance will be handled through the city’s processes including damage claims, letters of non-compliance and retention of a record of non-compliance by event stakeholders.

EVENTS RISK MANAGEMENT
According to the City of Cape Town Events (Draft) Policy (2008a:17), the city is committed to devising and implementing management techniques, plans and procedures in order to evaluate risks so that appropriate measures are implemented by event organisers.

The following aims for the safety and security of events will be implemented (City of Cape Town 2008a: 17):
- Systems approach to event safety management.
- Multidisciplinary and multisectoral engagement;
- Hazard identification and risk vulnerability assessment approach;
- Events by law to specify minimum requirements to stage live events;
- Monitoring, measuring performance and evaluating event plans;
- Formal approvals/rejection procedures;
- Promoting training and development in event safety management.

2010 FIFA WORLD CUP
A business plan for 2010 (2006) was drawn up by the City of Cape Town and the Western Cape, which highlights infrastructure, services, support, as well as special projects that are under way for 2010.

The 2010 business plan highlights a multibillion rand investment in a world-class stadium, improved transport systems and infrastructure, and extensive preparations for the event. It was stated by former Premier Ebrahim Rasool that this business plan is a blueprint of commitment and hope for the people of Cape Town and the Western Cape, and will require determination and hard work to ensure success. Rasool further asserted that the rewards would be a lifetime experience, creating many opportunities, and would give Cape Town’s infrastructure a major boost (South Africa 2006).

The 2010 FIFA World Cup Organising Committee is a non-profit company, which is incorporated under Section 21 of the Companies Act. It is responsible for the organisation of the World Cup tournament and brings together African football administrators, the government, and representatives of business and labour on its board (South Africa 2007: 8). Furthermore, national government is responsible for the delivery of 17 guarantees given by FIFA. Some of the guarantees that required legislation to be passed by parliament were:
- The 2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa Special Measures Act; and
- Second 2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa Special Measures Act.

These guarantees were passed in 2006 and will be effective for the World Cup period.

AN AFRICAN LEGACY
According to FIFA, it is the first time in 101 years that the World Cup has been awarded to an African country. South Africa is representative of not only of itself, but also of the entire African continent (South Africa 2007: 2).

The South African government (South Africa 2007: 2) further asserts that the African Union (AU) is fully supportive of making the 2010 an event for the African continent. The South African government further collaborates and contributes to the African legacy in the areas of:
Peace and nation-building;
Football support and development;
Environment and tourism;
Culture and heritage;
Communication;
Information and communication technology; and
Continental security cooperation.

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

The 2010 World Cup will be a catalyst for faster economic growth and development, (South Africa 2007: 4). As such, the South African government will ensure that hosting the tournament creates opportunities that can be accessed by all South Africans.

In ensuring these opportunities, the South African government has been mandated to accelerate economic growth by reducing poverty and unemployment by 2014. This will be achieved by working through the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA), (South Africa 2007: 5).

AsgiSA aims to increase growth to an average of 4.5% until 2009 and 6% in 2010 by means of the following:
• R134 billion investment in infrastructure, including preparations for 2010;
• Focus on strategic sectors with a potential for fast job-creating growth;
• Ensuring that the country has the skills that it needs;
• Creating opportunities for those who are marginalised in the second economy;
• Maintaining the policies that have brought macroeconomic stability; and
• Improving government’s capacity to deliver.

INVESTMENT IN 2010

According to the South African government, public money is being invested in World Cup projects that will help to achieve existing government objectives and development goals. National government has directly invested R17.4 billion in infrastructure in the World Cup between 2006 and 2010. In total, South Africa will be investing more than R400 billion in the country’s infrastructure, from rail-freight services to energy production, communications, airports and other ports of entry, (South Africa 2007: 6).

Table 3: Highlights of the 2010 budget

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infrastructure</th>
<th>Budget</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transport and supporting infrastructure</td>
<td>R9 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stadia</td>
<td>R8.4 billion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NON-INFRASTRUCTURE

| Sport and recreation         | R379 million |
| Arts and culture             | R150 million |
| Safety and security          | R686 million |
| Health                        | R288 million |

Source: Adapted from South Africa (2007: 6).

The following forecasts have been provided by the South African government (South Africa 2007: 7):
• The 2010 FIFA World Cup will contribute R51.1 billion to the GDP of South Africa between 2006 and 2010.
• The World Cup is producing multibillion-rand hotel developments across South Africa, including investments such as Dubai World, the Intercontinental Hospitality Group, the Starwood Hospitality Group and Resorts Worldwide.
It is said that 2010 will be the first World Cup whereby non-hotel accommodation will be used. This, in turn, provides business opportunities for guesthouses and bed-and-breakfast establishments.

The World Cup will create opportunities for small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMMEs) who should register with MATCH, (Management of Accommodation, Ticketing, Computers and IT solutions and Hospitality), a company appointed by FiFA to provide ticketing, accommodation and event information technology services to FIFA for the FiFA Confederations Cup in South Africa in 2009.

Grading of SMMEs is required. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) has invested R200 million to assist in the grading process.

The process of “greening 2010” is the responsibility of DEAT, which includes waste management, water and energy conservation, sustainable architecture at stadia, carbon offset and public awareness campaigns.

HEALTH AND MEDICAL SERVICES

Health and medical services are key to the 2010 World Cup, and the Department of Health has developed the National Emergency Medical Services Strategic Framework (NESF) which is set to enhance emergency medical services (EMS) over the next five years.

The National Emergency Strategic Framework (NESF) will focus on the following key areas (South Africa 2007: 19):

- State-of-the-art communication centres which will be established in major centres within each province with a budget of R37 million;
- Medical helicopter services, which will be established at a cost of R27 million;
- Over the next year, replacement of 450 vehicles in excess of 200,000 kms at a cost of R135 million;
- An upgrade of emergency centres for the World Cup at a cost of R8 million;
- Higher-level training for emergency personnel to increase the ability of staff to provide immediate care at on-site emergencies.

SAFETY AND SECURITY

The South African government has assured the safety of all international visitors to the 2010 World Cup, and South Africa will work closely with international agencies. There will be an estimated 31,000 police officers deployed for the 2010 World Cup. Courts will be available 24 hours a day, seven days a week to ensure access to justice during the event. Police teams will patrol and focus on FIFA accommodation establishments, stadia, fan parks, restaurants and tourist attractions. Furthermore, state-of-the-art information and communications military technology will be used, and an estimated fleet of 40 helicopters will be available (South Africa 2007: 21).

SPORTS DEVELOPMENT

Sport clubs are an important element in the development of organised sport. The South African government will focus on developing sports clubs in disadvantaged communities, including rural areas, while relevant training will be provided to local enthusiasts in club administration, refereeing and coaching skills (South Africa 2007: 22). Volunteers will assist in the 2010 World Cup and will also focus on football matches for the Confederations Cup this year (2009). They will be given special training in specialised areas such as media, protocol, transport, hospitality, tourism, safety and security, health and communication.

The 2010 FIFA World Cup will be held in nine cities in South Africa for a month, with an estimated 25 to 28 billion people expected to attend. This event provides the City of Cape Town with an opportunity to improve its infrastructure and marketing strategies (2010 FIFA World Cup
The City expects post–2010 Cape Town to become a much more desirable destination for meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions (MICE). This will be a lasting legacy for Cape Town.

According to a media release by the City of Cape Town (2007), Cape Town has beaten New York to top the list of long-haul destinations which are favoured by UK-based events agencies. Furthermore, the Cape Town Conventions and Events Bureau has won six international conferences that are estimated to bring over 10 000 delegates to the Western Cape, injecting over R116.8 million into the local economy. The six conferences will take place over a period of seven years, including the International Congress of Psychology in July 2012.

The strengths of the City of Cape Town lie in its natural beauty, arts and cultural diversity, and it was ranked as the best city in Africa and the Middle East region by a travel magazine in New York (Western Cape Business Guide 2008). Furthermore, according to Mr Mohamed, the City’s executive director for Economic, Social Development and Tourism, Cape Town has beaten popular Middle Eastern and European destinations such as Dubai and Paris.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology was based on an empirical study in the form of qualitative research. A structured questionnaire was used, which included 350 event practitioners, event organisations, event venues and event students. This resulted in 300 questionnaires being completed from all four event categories. The questionnaires took the form of structured interviews and the research tool that was used was the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The research focused on four key areas:

- **Section A**: Status of the event role-player;
- **Section B**: Interest and importance in managing risks in the event industry;
- **Section C**: Accuracy of techniques and methods used; and
- **Section D**: Policies and procedures in risk management.

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ALL FOUR EVENT CATEGORIES

According to the research study, an analysis was conducted of each event category. Owing to the amount of data generated and the response rate from each category, the data was limited to a comparative analysis of all four event categories.

The types of risks can be further grouped into four main categories as stated by Tassiopoulos (2000: 229). **Economic risk** is risk in financial terms, which can involve unforeseen costs, high exchange rates, a decline in economic circumstances, insufficient sponsorship, insufficient funding, inaccurate capital and operating costs, and a lack of public money. **Performance risk** occurs within the event organisation whereby mismanagement can prevent the organisation from reaching its objectives. Associated with Performance Risk is technology which has become an increasing risk for major events as many high-profile events are reliant on technology (Van der Wagen 2005: 100). **Psychological risk** involves social and environmental impacts that can affect the event. **Physical risk** is a common and important risk which occurs in the event industry, while attention should be focused on public liability, and health and safety.
1. Economic risk (financial loss)

Risk management has become a fundamental concern in the event industry regarding economic importance.

![Figure 1: Economic importance](image)

Results of the research showed that with an 80.6% majority, the economic importance of risk management has become important to event role-players.

According to statistics in the above figure, the level of agreement of risk management, as a fundamental economic driver, showed that:

- The majority of event stakeholders believe that the event industry is based on economic indicators or variables.
- The majority of event stakeholders know that the event industry is a business and cannot thrive without financial support.
- The event industry does not work in isolation and requires funding, finance and sponsorship in order to drive the event.
- However, there are economic impacts (external), which the event stakeholder should take into account, which will impact on the event.

2. Performance risk (poor-quality performance, weather deterioration, unreliability)

Risk management has become a fundamental concern in the event industry regarding performance importance.

![Figure 2: Performance importance](image)

Results of the research showed that with a 66.5% majority, performance importance of risk management has become important to event role-players.

According to statistics in figure 2, the level of agreement of risk management, as a fundamental performance factor, showed that:

- Risk management is an important performance factor within the event industry.
The majority of event stakeholders expressed their concern in the above table, which shows that the internal performance of any event organisation requires consideration in terms of management, leadership and equity among managers and employees.

Performance risk relates not only to management within the event organisation, but also to its external environment, which means that management within the organisation impacts on management outside of it.

Performance risks can be classified as risks such as poor performance, unreliability, poor quality, unethical practices, as well as external factors that can be added, such as weather and safety.

3. Psychological risk (poor image of an event, venue, environment, which can reduce attendance)

Risk management has become a fundamental concern in the event industry regarding psychological importance.

Results of the research showed that with a 76.1% majority, the psychological importance of risk management has become important to event role-players.

According to statistics in the figure 3, the level of agreement of risk management, as a fundamental psychological factor, showed that:

- The majority of event stakeholders believe that risk management is of psychological importance, which means that there are social and environmental impacts which play a major role within the event industry in Cape Town.
- With reference to the above statement, risk factors that event stakeholders should consider include perils, hazards, threats and vulnerabilities, which include social and environmental impacts.
- It is therefore imperative to anticipate that incidents will occur, and to establish contingency plans and apply “Murphy’s Law”, since “What can go wrong, will go wrong”.

Figure 3: Psychological importance

Assessing the management of risks in the event industry
4. Physical risk (danger to life, disease, crime, safety and security)

Risk management has become a fundamental concern in the event industry regarding physical importance.

![Figure 4: Physical importance](image)

Results of the research showed that with an 82.3% majority, the physical importance of risk management has become important to event role-players.

According to statistics in the above table, the level of agreement of risk management, as a fundamental physical factor, showed that:

- The majority of event stakeholders believe that it is important to consider physical aspects of the event, since several physical factors within the event industry are overlooked.
- Physical factors that are considered important and that should be focused on refer to public liability insurance, which is a major setback for event stakeholders; corporate governance, which several event stakeholders do not consider or have limited knowledge of; as well as health and safety, particularly for venues that are not inspected on a regular basis and thus attract crime and disease.
- With reference to the study, research was conducted on corporate governance and public liability, and the important role they play within the event industry, which event stakeholders are required to abide by and include in their businesses.
- Results of the research findings show that 60 to 85% of event stakeholders believe that risk management has become important in all four risk categories. Research also shows that 63.2% of event stakeholders rated compliance management as a major important element in the event industry. Of event stakeholders, 68.7 to 78.4% agreed that corporate governance and public liability have become imperative to the long-term sustainability of the event organisation, and require constant monitoring.
- Of event stakeholders, 43% do not have necessary risk management procedures in place, or lack necessary knowledge and capacity of risk management within the event organisation.

Table 4: Risk categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ratio %</th>
<th>Risk categories</th>
<th>Event stakeholders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>73–78%</td>
<td>Economic risks</td>
<td>Insufficient sponsorship, inaccurate capital, insufficient funding, insurance and lack of financial support require major attention and constant monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71–76%</td>
<td>Performance risks</td>
<td>Mismanagement, equity, lack of leadership and time management within the event organisation require attention and constant monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73–81%</td>
<td>Psychological risks</td>
<td>Social impacts and environmental impacts are imperative to the event organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69–85%</td>
<td>Physical risks</td>
<td>Public liability, health and safety, safety and security, and corporate governance are important to the event industry and require constant attention and monitoring</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of the accuracy of techniques and methods used, a proportion of 20 to 33% of event stakeholders stated inaccuracy, unreliability and difficulty in the use of techniques and methods that are currently in place within the event industry, as opposed to 50% who stated otherwise.

According to research conducted regarding the availability of resources, 56 to 61% asserted that there are limited resources available for clear techniques and practical methods in managing exposure to losses, damages, uncertainties and comprehensiveness, as well as for convenient use.

Table 5: Appropriateness and ethics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ratio %</th>
<th>Appropriateness and ethical approach of policies and legislation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>47%</td>
<td>A small percentage of event stakeholders feel that the policies and legislation set by the South Africa government are appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45–51%</td>
<td>Event stakeholders stated that a minimum number of benefits are provided by the government and the Risk Management Institute of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53–61%</td>
<td>Event stakeholders feel that they have a better understanding of risk management, and feel secure with policies and legislation that are in place</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was strongly emphasised by the event stakeholders (74%) that education and training within the event industry on managing risks is imperative, which increases the responsibility and reliability as well as the cost-effectiveness within event organisations.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper recommends that:

- Education and training in risk management becomes a priority for all event stakeholders as it is clear from the findings that event role-players do not have necessary skills, knowledge and training to manage risks adequately. Education and training have increased responsibility and reliability within event organisations.

- Resources should be made available for clear practical risk management methods. A total of 55.8% of event stakeholders agreed that there are limited resources for clear techniques and methods to manage risk, while 60% showed that there are limited resources for practical methods to manage risks.

- A proper and comprehensive risk management policy should be established. The City of Cape Town has drafted an Events (Draft) Policy. This draft policy, of February 2003, aims to encourage staging safe mass events and to provide structures and processes which will simplify staging events in the City of Cape Town.

- Research has shown that much focus should be concentrated on mismanagement within the event organisation, with 70.6% of event stakeholders agreeing. There is a lack of leadership (72.9%), while 76.1% of event stakeholders agreeing on a lack of time management and 71.6% stating that there is a lack of equity within event organisations.

- Event stakeholders should engage in adequate training of event operations and logistics in event management within the event industry in order to stage safe and successful events.

- Necessary skills and training, which are required, can be obtained from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, offered by the Graduate Centre for Management. Various short courses are offered, which cover different aspects of event management, and are open to stakeholders who are involved in the event industry.

- With reference to the research conducted, 82.3% of event stakeholders felt that corporate governance is an important concern within the event industry. Corporate governance should be addressed and implemented in a holistic and ethical manner.

- No event occurs in isolation. It is therefore imperative that the Events Policy, initiated by the City of Cape Town, has procedures in place for potential sponsors with whom event stakeholders can establish successful business relationships.
Insurance management has been highlighted as one of the main risk factors that pose a problem within the event industry. Since 77.5% of event stakeholders agreed on the importance of public liability being addressed, there is a demand for this type of insurance within the event industry in Cape Town.

Technology within the event industry has become a major event tool. Event stakeholders should be made aware of the necessary event management systems in place and should have the necessary skills to access them.

Compliance management requires aggressive implementation within the event industry in Cape Town as legislation put in place by the South African government is ignored and not effectively implemented.

Risk management should undergo a continuous monitoring and reviewing process. The risk management process is a continuous one whereby the risk management areas should be implemented within the South African context.

CONCLUSION

The event industry complies with the necessary regulations and documentation which have been established by the South African Government. Because of events such as the 2010 Soccer World Cup, an integrated national framework for the procurement and legal compliance of temporary demountable structures is required (Ninow 2007). Cooperation with tertiary institutions, appropriately qualified individuals, capacity-building and gender equity and training and information management processes is also crucial.

Ninow (2007) states that funding is necessary for an integrated framework, while public awareness and cooperation are also required. It is required of local authorities and professional conference organisations within the event industry to abide by risk management policies and legislation which have been established by the South African government. Policies and legislation are powerful risk management tools as they give substance to goals and objectives by providing ethical and moral guidelines which assist in making important decisions, and can have a positive impact on the success of an event and event organisations. It is, therefore, important that the City of Cape Town and its proposed events (draft) policy be actively implemented with the integration of the risk management framework, which has been formulated with reference to the City of Cape Town.

REFERENCES


Assessing the management of risks in the event industry


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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF HIGH-ALTITUDE TRAINING CENTRES IN SOUTH AFRICA: THE PRACTICALITY OF A HIGH-ALTITUDE TRAINING CENTRE IN THE KINGDOM OF LESOTHO

B Parr*

ABSTRACT
The Kingdom of Lesotho is known as the Switzerland of Africa. Its highest peak is Mont Aux Sources at 3 282m above sea level. This study compared three high-altitude training (HAT) sites in South Africa with a proposed site in Lesotho. The differences in altitude, sports, recreation and facilities of the four sites were compared, and the practicality of a site in Lesotho discussed. This site will not only offer athletes the opportunity to train at higher altitudes than in South Africa but also to engage in the “living high and training low” model, which is strongly advocated today. The high mountainous regions of Lesotho with its rugged beauty combined with the proposed state-of-the-art sport and recreation facilities make it an attractive site for athletes to engage in high-altitude training.

INTRODUCTION
Since the 1968 Mexico Olympic Games, high-altitude training (HAT) has received growing interest. The Games were held in Mexico City at an elevation of 2 300 m (7 544 ft). Endurance athletes performed poorly while the sprinters did well. Athletes based in high-altitude countries (Kenya and Ethiopia) outperformed those from low-altitude countries (Wilber 2004).

The science behind the theory is that when the body is exposed to hypoxic (low oxygen) conditions (as it is at altitude) it begins to produce more erythropoietin, which in turn leads to an increased erythrocyte (red blood cell) and haemoglobin concentration. This enables the body to carry more oxygen in the blood, which increases the capacity of the body to produce energy aerobically.

The most popular training model, developed in the 1990s, to best gain this effect of increased oxygen-carrying capacity of the blood and subsequent improvement in performance is the “live high and train low” model.

The exercise physiologist Randall Wilber, based at the US Olympic training centre in Colorado Springs, Colorado, is an investigator and advocate of the live high/train low model. This model states that athletes need to live at an altitude of between 1 800 and 2 700 m and train as low as possible. As training at lower elevations allows athletes to achieve running speeds similar to those at sea level, they benefit from the neuromuscular adaptations associated with speed training, for example the speed at which neurons are able to recruit muscle fibres, which is purported to improve performance (Wilber 2004).

METHODOLOGY
Recently three high-altitude training sites in South Africa and one in Lesotho were visited to find out whether a high-altitude training centre site in Lesotho could offer athletes more than the current sites in South Africa. Based on the facilities at these sites and the requirements of the Lesotho government, a recommendation for facilities at the Lesotho site was made. “Beauty”, which is a measure of the beauty of each area, was calculated subjectively by three researchers giving each area a rating out of 10, and the mean value of the three was calculated as a percentage.

The following people were consulted either in person, telephonically or by email:
A comparative study of high-altitude training centres in South Africa

- Randall Wilber: Exercise physiologist, US Olympic Training centre, Colorado
- Karoly von Toros: National SA academy coach and coach to four Olympic athletes
- Prof Wayne Derman: SA team Olympic doctor to Sydney and Athens
- Roger Barrow: SA rowing academy and coach
- Francois Pretorius: Secunda HAT founder and coach. SA Junior Champion 1500 m in 2001 and 2002
- Opie Kerkenen: Founder of Dullstroom HAT
- Tony Harding: SA national cycling team manager for the last five years, Australian Institute of Sport accredited coach.

RESULTS

Table 1: Differences in altitude, sports and facilities of three high-altitude training sites compared to the proposed vision of the site in Lesotho

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Potchefstroom</th>
<th>Dullstroom</th>
<th>Secunda</th>
<th>Lesotho</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training altitude</td>
<td>1 500 m</td>
<td>1 800 m or 1 200 m (40 minutes’ drive away)</td>
<td>1 650 m</td>
<td>2 200 m or 1 500 m (1 hr drive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living altitude</td>
<td>1 500 m</td>
<td>1 800 m</td>
<td>1 650 m</td>
<td>2 100 m and 2 700 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track and field facilities</td>
<td>400 m grass track, all field events</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>400 m grass track, 47 km of user-friendly gravel paths</td>
<td>See proposal below Soccer field surrounded by 400 m grass and synthetic track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main sports</td>
<td>Cycling, netball, hockey, rugby</td>
<td>Running and orienteering</td>
<td>Race walking, running (800 m up to full marathon)</td>
<td>Rowing, canoeing, running (middle to long distance) swimming, soccer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure sports</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Mountain biking</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Mountain biking, orienteering, abseiling, 4x4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gym facility</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports science facility</td>
<td>Yes, excellent</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure recreation (recreation centre, climbing wall, obstacle course, etc.)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation for “off days”</td>
<td>Yes, town and game drives</td>
<td>Yes, fishing, game park</td>
<td>Limited</td>
<td>Yes, pony trekking, fishing, village visits. but no “city life”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical facilities, x-ray and MRI</td>
<td>Yes, excellent</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes, excellent</td>
<td>Yes, limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting high-altitude research</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Proposal for facilities at the Lesotho high-altitude training site

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase I</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A 400 m track, the two inside lanes made of synthetic material and the 6–8 outside lanes of grass. The inside of the track should be used for soccer</td>
<td>These facilities include those that are suitable for HAT as well as those which appeared popular with the people of Lesotho. Since so many people live at altitude in Lesotho, it is not surprising to place a soccer field at high altitude. The benefits of HAT for soccer have not been studied. This provides an area of interest for research. A grass track is healthier for the musculoskeletal system than a synthetic track as synthetic tracks are harder than grass. The synthetic part would be to complete time trials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grass track around perimeter of site – ideally in a figure of eight with one circuit being 3 km and the other 2 km but with the possibility of a full 5 km. The track must be as level as possible. Track at 1 500 m site to be repaired to enable lower-altitude training</td>
<td>This is very important for middle- to long-distance athletes. The Greek Olympic team from 400 m to half-marathon athletes train on a 2 km circuit – but the one recommended is better. It is important for speed training and flat runs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A gym</td>
<td>200 m² including floor space of 40 m² for floor training which could double up for Thai kickboxing, a popular sport in Lesotho. The gym should be located at 2 200 m, not 2 700 m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Two medical rooms adjoining the gym</td>
<td>Including the following: plinth, shelves for medicine, lockable cabinet for valuable physiotherapist or doctor’s tools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boathouse at water’s edge</td>
<td>For housing boats</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase II</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A 25 m six- to ten-lane indoor heated swimming pool. Lanes 2.5 m each so ten lanes would be 25 m by 25 m</td>
<td>Implemented once phase i is established. HAT swimming is becoming popular. The pool can also be utilised for cross-training by runners and for rehabilitation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adventure sport facilities. Single-track mountain bike trails. Climbing, abseiling, orienteering and 4x4s</td>
<td>Animal tracks could be utilised for mountain biking pending environmental department clearance. Tracks need to be 20 km and 50 km round tracks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase III</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sports science laboratory</td>
<td>This could be implemented alongside a development in sport science at Roma University. Great research could be done on Basotho athletes as well as doing the necessary testing for the foreign athletes should they require it. Lesotho has a unique opportunity to get involved academically and a centre backed by academia is at an advantage. The most popular centres in the world like Colorado are backed by academia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hosting events</td>
<td>Lesotho also has great potential to host mountain biking and road endurance events.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Firstly, Lesotho, at an altitude of 2 200 m has an advantage over places in the 1 500 m to 1 800 m altitude (which includes all the centres in South Africa). Medium altitude is considered to be between 1 300 m and 2 000 m above sea level. Studies which have conducted research using a living altitude of 2 000 m and training between sea level and 1 250 m (Dehnert et al. 2002; Liu et al. 1998; Hutler et al. 1998) did not achieve the results achieved when athletes lived at 2 500 m, and trained at 1 250 m (Levine & Stray-Gunderson 1997; Stray-Gundersen, Chapman & Levine 2001; Chapman, Stray-Gundersen & Levine 1998). 2 200 m or an altitude of 2 700 m (as are the options in Lesotho) therefore will provide the added stimulus needed for increased red blood cell formation and the subsequent improvement in performance. The coaches at Dullstroom and Secunda were interested in sending their athletes to Lesotho for this extra bit of altitude.

Secondly, the opportunity of being able to drive down to an altitude of 1 500 m once a week for speed training further increases the attractiveness of Lesotho as a high-altitude training site. As mentioned, training at lower elevations allows the athlete to achieve running speeds similar to those at sea level, so they therefore benefit from the neuromuscular adaptations associated with speed training (Wilber 2004).
Thirdly, if the current proposal for the facilities at the Lesotho site is realised, Lesotho will boast a high-altitude training centre which is not only the right elevation for optimal high-altitude training but also has a state-of-the-art gymnasium, recreation facilities and a sports science facility, the latter of which would benefit academia in Lesotho.

Finally, athletes will be able to live at a site which is incredibly beautiful and will benefit from the feeling of “getting away from it all”.

If this site is to be successful, however, Lesotho will have to consider addressing the standard of medical facilities in the area, the communication lines (athletes need to be able to communicate with their families both telephonically and by email), security and road access, as well as a sustainable site administration and marketing system.

REFERENCES


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